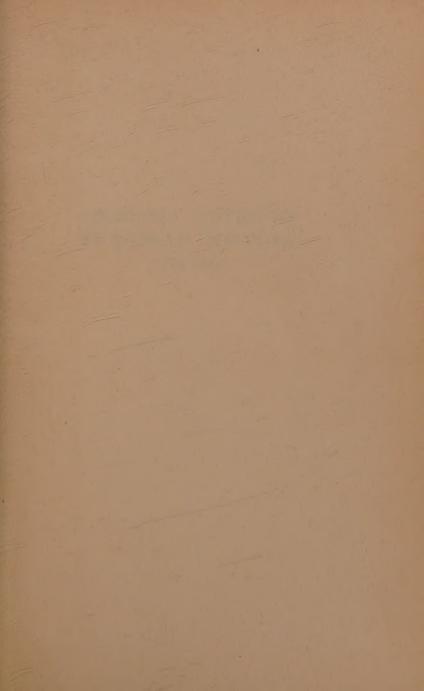
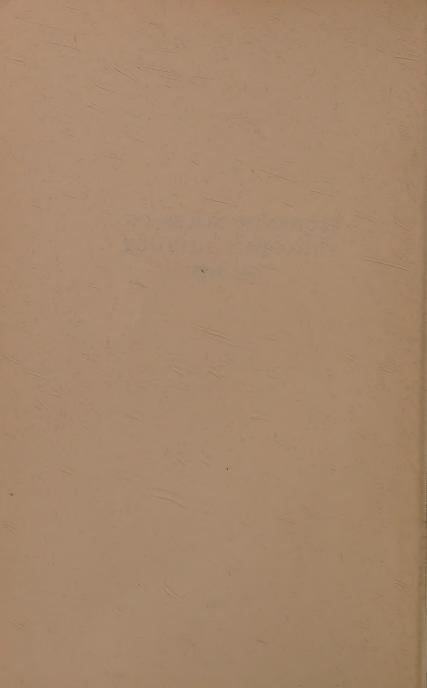


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STUDENTS' NOTES ON EUROPEAN HISTORY = 1789-1918



STUDENTS' NOTES ON EUROPEAN HISTORY 1789-1918

BY

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LONDON
G. BELL AND SONS, LTD.
1926

PRINTED IN GREAT BRITAIN BY RICHARD CLAY & SONS, LIMITED, BUNGAY, SUFFOLK.

PREFACE

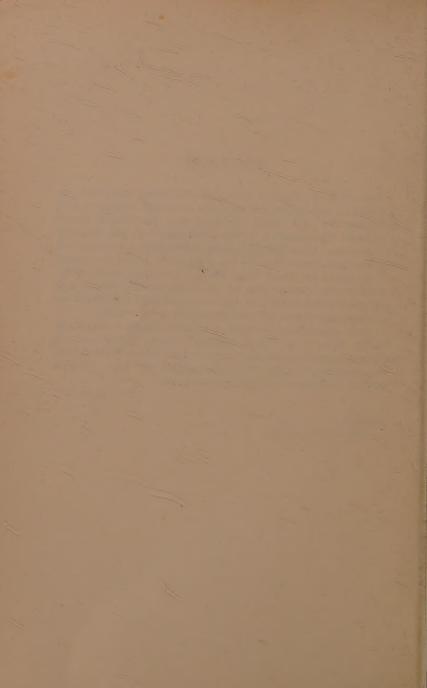
This book is based on notes collected during ten years' experience in teaching the history of the nineteenth century to boys preparing for the School Certificate and the Higher School Certificate Examinations of the Joint Board of the Northern Universities. It comprises a survey of the political history of all the European States from the beginning of the French Revolution to the end of the Great War. There is no claim to originality, except in the general plan of the book, but the success and popularity of the notes with my own pupils have encouraged me to believe that they would be welcomed by a wider public.

I have pleasure in tendering my sincere thanks to Mr. R. M. Hedley, M.A., of the Royal Technical College, Salford, for his kindness in reading the proofs, and to Professor J. Holland Rose for permission to reprint the translation of the Ems Telegram

from his Development of the European Nations.

J. G. ALTHAM.

Salford, January 31, 1926.



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STUDENTS' NOTES ON EUROPEAN HISTORY

CHAPTER I

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

THE beginning of a new social era in Europe. Its causes were mainly POLITICAL, and must be sought in the history of France under Richelieu, Mazarin, Louis XIV, and Louis XV.

France before 1789.

The King. Was an absolute monarch. Ruled "by the grace of God." He elected his own ministers and determined the laws and taxes. No accounts were ever published as to the amount of the revenue or its expenditure. He had the right to imprison any of his subjects without trial, and to declare war and conclude treaties. The THREE ESTATES, the nearest approach to the English Parliament, had not met since 1614. The PROVINCES were governed by royal officials, the INTENDANTS, who were appointed by and dismissable by the King. Louis XIV's assertion, "L'ÉTAT, C'EST MOI" was literally true.

The Aristocracy. Numbered about 250,000 in a total population of twenty-five millions. The nobles had been deprived of all their political powers by Richelieu; they had been allowed to retain their PRIVILEGES, as if they still governed their dependents and helped to defend their country at their own expense. The Chief Privileges of the Nobles. They were exempt from taxation. (The Church estates were also exempt from taxation.) They monopolised the higher posts in the Church. They officered the army and the navy. They retained a few vexatious RELICS OF THEIR OLD FEUDAL POWER over the peasants who had to perform

a few days' unpaid labour at such seasons as ploughing, sowing, and harvesting. The noble alone was allowed to hunt, and keep doves and pigeons, which did enormous damage to the crops of the peasants, who were not allowed to interfere with them and received no compensation for losses. In many districts the peasant had to bake his bread in the lord's oven, grind his corn in the lord's mill, press his grapes in the lord's wine-press, and pay one-tenth of the produce to the lord.

The Intellectual Revolution. The age of the philosophical writers dated from the reign of Louis XIV.

Voltaire (1694-1778). Led the attack on the Church. "AN INFAMOUS INSTITUTION." The traditions, beliefs, and authority of the Church mercilessly and unceasingly denounced. "The individual is the supreme judge of his own conduct." "The human intellect is man's chief authority."

The Encyclopedists. DIDEROT, D'ALEMBERT, and many other philosophers. THE ENCYCLOPEDIA was an attempt to instruct in accordance with the teaching of the philosophers. The writers were attacked as enemies of religion and society.

Rousseau (1712-78) appealed to the masses. Europe was suffering from over-civilisation. Man must "RETURN TO NATURE," to an era of social equality, to "THE GOLDEN AGE" before the days of despotic powers, privileged orders, wealth and poverty. [1762]. Publication of the "SOCIAL CONTRACT." The monarchy originated in a social contract, in which the individual enjoyed the protection of the State, delegating certain powers to the ruler, but retaining his individual liberty. THE KING, no less than the subject, had to perform his DUTY and keep his side of the agreement. "Man is born free, but is now everywhere in chains." "Law is the expression of the general will." "The basis of legitimate government is the will of the people." "Liberty, equality, and fraternity."

Montesquieu (1689-1755). Author of a popular book, The Spirit of the Laws, which familiarised Frenchmen with the customs and forms of the English Constitution. Especially the Cabinet System, the Habeas Corpus Act, and Trial by Jury.

The Drift towards National Bankruptcy. 1774. Accession of Louis XVI found France on the verge of NATIONAL BANKRUPTCY owing to the wars and extravagances of Louis XIV and of Louis XV.

Louis XVI's intervention in the American War of Independence precluded any further hope of balancing expenditure and income, and a rapid succession of finance ministers failed to effect adequate reforms.

Turgot (1774-6). Freed the internal trade in corn and flour from the old provincial custom dues. Urged, but failed to effect, economies at Court and in the army and navy. Tried to reform the wasteful system of collecting the "GABELLE" or salt tax. The government monopolised the sale of salt and charged a high price for it. Every family was compelled to purchase a fixed amount, and the price varied in different parts of the country, Paris paying thirty times the amount charged in Brittany.

1781. It was calculated that it cost eighteen million livres to collect a revenue of seventy-two million livres from the gabelle.

Turgot aroused the opposition of the Queen and the privileged orders and was forced to resign.

Necker (1776-81). An administrator, who had gained a great reputation in the south of France—a successful banker, a foreigner, and a protestant. After warning Louis that intervention in the American War of Independence would cause the bankruptcy of France, he financed the war by enormous loans. Demanded the taxation of the privileged orders. 1781 [January.] His famous "ACCOUNT OF THE FINANCES" published. An amazing document that first revealed to the French people the chaos into which the State finances had fallen. The cost of the Court was nearly one-third of that of the army. The following month Necker was dismissed by the King.

Calonne (1783-7). A Court favourite. Abandoned Necker's policy of economy and made a boast of his extravagances. In four years he completely destroyed the National Credit at home and abroad. He supplied money lavishly for the fêtes of the Queen, gave pensions to many of the nobles, raised loans after the peace of Versailles (1783). 1786. Calonne reported to Louis that the State was on the verge of bankruptcy and that nothing less than "A RADICAL REFORMATION OF THE WHOLE PUBLIC ORDER" could save it. 1787. He summoned an "ASSEMBLY OF NOTABLES," nominated by the King from members of the privileged orders, and proposed the TAXATION OF THE PRIVILEGED ORDERS as the only remedy. He was dismissed and the Assembly disbanded.

Brienne (1787-8). Quarrelled with the Parlements over the registration of his new land-tax. The famous declaration of the Paris Parlement that "only the nation, assembled in the Estates General, can give the consent necessary to the establishment of a permanent tax." A few days later it asked Louis to summon the Estates General. Brienne was dismissed and Necker recalled. Lafayette, who enjoyed great popularity after the American War of Independence, declared for the summoning of the Estates General. Supported by a growing demand from the provinces. Louis promised to summon the Estates in 1789.

The Estates General.

The Estates General had not met since 1614. Sat in three Chambers, Nobles, Clercy, and the third estate. In spite of the opposition of the privileged orders Necker gave the Third Estate twice the number of representatives of either of the other two Chambers. Two-thirds of the representatives of the clergy were humble parish priests in sympathy with the people. The third estate was representative of the upper and professional middle classes and contained only one member who might have been called a "labour member."

There were two ecclesiastics, twelve nobles, eighteen magistrates of towns, two hundred and twelve lawyers, one hundred and two members of local councils, sixteen doctors, two hundred and sixteen merchants and farmers. Every member of the Three Estates had his "CAHIER" or list of instructions from his constituents.

The "cahiers" of the Third Estate asked for a regular assembly to share the right of legislation with the King, ministerial responsibility to the Assembly, Single Chamber government, the control of taxation, the inviolability of the deputies, freedom from arbitrary arrest for all Frenchmen, and liberty of the Press.

1789. [May 5.] The Estates opened by the King. Necker received a general ovation, and Louis was greeted with enthusiasm. THE KING'S SPEECH announced some reductions in expenditure, voiced the necessity for money grants, and expressed the royal abhorrence of innovations. Louis concluded by proclaiming himself "THE CHIEF FRIEND OF HIS SUBJECTS."

Necker wearied the Assembly with a three hours' speech on the state of the national finances.

[May 6.] The nobles and clergy withdrew to deliberate separately. The Third Estate refused to act till they returned.

[June 17.] The Third Estate formally invited the nobles and clergy to join in one chamber, and on their refusal declared themselves the NATIONAL ASSEMBLY.

The National Assembly. 1789 [June]-1791 [September].

The Assembly voted the legality of existing taxes only during its own existence, accepted responsibility for the National Debt, and appointed a committee on food supplies. NECKER lost all influence at Court and with the Assembly. Louis fell into the hands of the reactionary princes and nobles at Court.

[June 20.] Louis suspended the meetings of the Assembly and sent troops to occupy the Hall of Assembly. The deputies met in the Tennis Court surrounded by troops. The OATH OF THE TENNIS COURT. The deputies swore never to disband till they had given a constitution to France.

[June 23.] Louis, attended by soldiers, received by the deputies in silence. In his speech he refused to acknowledge the National Assembly, annulled its acts, ordered the Estates to meet separately, prescribed the reforms they were to be allowed to make, and concluded by ordering the deputies to separate. The nobles and clergy obeyed, but the deputies of the people remained seated and silent.

Mirabeau sprang to leadership, and in an impassioned speech denounced the violation of the NATIONAL TEMPLE by the armed forces of the Court, reminding the deputies of their oaths in the Tennis Court. The Master of Ceremonies repeated the King's order. Mirabeau told him "to tell his master that the deputies were there by the WILL OF THE PEOPLE and would only disperse AT THE POINT OF THE BAYONET. The curés, "the Third Estate of the clergy," joined and a few days later forty-seven nobles, headed by the DUKE OF ORLEANS.

[June 27.] Louis ordered the other nobles and clergy to join the Assembly. He determined to employ force, and made vast military preparations. Versailles became a camp and Paris was filled with royal troops, including German and Swiss regiments.

[July 9.] On Mirabeau's motion the Assembly sent an address to Louis to withdraw the troops, and Louis replied that he was the sole judge of the desirability of assembling or withdrawing troops.

[July 11.] Necker dismissed and retired to Brussels. The ministry reorganised. Necker acquired new popularity as a victim of the reactionary court party.

[July 12.] The news reached Paris, and CAMILLE DESMOULINS, a popular journalist, harangued the citizens. "The exile of Necker is the signal for a Saint Bartholomew of patriots."—"Our only resource is to FLY TO ARMS."

[July 13.] 48,000 men enrolled, and a COMMITTEE OF PUBLIC SAFETY created. The Hôtel des Invalides raided for arms.

[July 14.] Capture of the Bastille. After a four hours' attack the Governor, De Launey, surrendered. Barricades appeared in the streets and Paris prepared to withstand an attack by the royal troops. LAFAYETTE elected commander of the NATIONAL GUARD.

[July 17.] Louis visited Paris. Donned the TRICOLOUR COCKADE and was received with enthusiasm. Beginning of the emigration of the nobles. The King's brother, the COUNT OF ARTOIS, with his two sons, settled at Turin. NECKER returned in triumph to Paris, but speedily lost his popularity owing to his support of half measures. The fall of the Bastille inspired risings in the provinces, where the châteaux and the seigneurial title-deeds were burned.

[August 4.] The Constituent Assembly abolished all privileges. Abolition of serfdom; all slaves in the colonies declared free. All classes eligible for all civil and military offices.

The Rights of Man. [August 26.] One of the most important documents in the history of the world—the work of the National Assembly.

(i) Men are born equal and remain equal in right.

(ii) Law is the expression of the general will.

(iii) No one shall be accused, arrested, or imprisoned except according to the law.

(iv) No one shall be disturbed on account of his opinions, including his religious views, provided that he does not disturb the public order established by law.

(v) The free communication of ideas and opinions, by speech, writing, or printing, is one of the most precious of the rights of man.

(vi) All citizens have a right to decide, either personally or by their representatives, as to the necessity of their contributions to the public treasury, to grant them freely, to know to what uses the money is put, and to fix the proportion, the mode of assessment and of collection, and the duration of all taxes.

The New Constitution. The Assembly was vested with

supreme power. The King became "the hereditary agent" of the nation. The King had no power to convoke, direct, or suspend the Assembly. The Assembly alone had the right of initiating legislation. The Legislative Body was declared permanent. The King was given a suspensive veto for two sessions and a measure passed in three successive sessions became law in spite of the King's veto.

The Insurrection of October 5 and 6. ROYALIST TROOPS were concentrated at Versailles, where the officers were fêted by the royal family, and the tricolour cockade trampled underfoot.

[October 1 and 2.] The arrival of the news roused Paris The women of Paris marched to Versailles to demand bread. Lafayette followed with the National Guard and saved the royal family from insult on the evening of the 5th. In the early morning of the 6th some of the mob entered the Palace but the King and Queen were saved by Lafayette and the National Guard. The royal family, the King, the Queen, and the Dauphin were escorted to Paris. The Assembly followed.

The Beginning of a New Era of Mob Rule. The clubs and the Paris commune began to dominate the Assembly.

Rise of the Jacobins. The Jacobin Club originated in meetings of the Breton deputies in the old convent of the Jacobins. Later regular meetings, reported in the newspapers, were held and branches established in all parts of France. An early offshoot of the Jacobin Club at Paris was the Cordeliers' Club, dominated by Desmoulins, Hébert, Marat, and Danton. Royalist clubs were formed to combat the influence of the popular clubs. Enormous publication of pamphlets and newspapers.

[December 22.] Creation of the Departments. France divided into eighty-three departments to break up the influence of the old provinces. Every department was divided into districts and every district into cantons. Every canton contained five or six parishes. The department had an administrative council and an executive committee. The districts had similar but smaller and subordinate councils. The canton was not an administrative area but an electoral area, all citizens who paid taxes equal to three days' wages having a vote. They elected the men who were to elect the deputies to the National Assembly, the members of the administrative councils of the departments and the districts, and the judges. Every department had a criminal court, every district a civil court, and every canton a magisterial court. The communes or large towns were administered by municipal

COUNCILS, composed of members in proportion to their population.

The Attack on the Church. The nobles and the bishops were

the two chief enemies of the Revolution.

[December 2.] Appropriation of all Church property, the State guaranteeing the maintenance of the churches and the salaries of the clergy. The difficulty of selling all the estates of the Church led to the "ASSIGNATS." The towns took up large blocks of Church lands and issued notes or "assignats" on the security of the property. Such vast quantities were issued that they rapidly depreciated in value and caused financial loss and chaos.

1790. [June.] The Civil Constitution of the Clergy. All clerics to be appointed and paid by the State. Two-thirds of the

clergy refused to obey the decree.

The Jury established for criminal offences. The King to pro-

pose peace or war—the Assembly to decide.

The Fête of July 14. Amid scenes of great enthusiasm the King and the chief men in France took the oath to preserve the Constitution.

[September 4.] Resignation of Necker, who had outlived all his popularity. Flight of the King's aunts. A law passed decreeing the confiscation of the property and goods of the Emigrés, with the loss of all civil rights.

1791. [April 2.] Death of Mirabeau. Age 43. His aim had been the establishment of a democratic and constitutional monarchy. He had accepted a pension from the King and written him pages of good advice, which had been ignored. His death removed the last man who could have saved Louis and the one real statesman in France. He was buried amidst universal mourning.

CHAPTER II

THE EUROPEAN COALITION AGAINST THE REVOLUTION

GENERAL alarm at the course of events in France.

Austria and Prussia frightened at the rise of Jacobinism and desirous of increasing their territories. A genuine desire to restore the threatened royal absolutism.

1790. Burke had published his Reflections on the French Revolution and roused Englishmen against France. SWEDEN, RUSSIA, SPAIN, and SARDINIA ready to help in an attack on the Revolution.

1791. [May.] Conference of Mantua. Austria, Prussia, and the Émigrés concerted plans for the invasion of France. The French royal family was to escape to Germany, join the allied army, and be restored to France by force of arms.

[June 21.] The Flight to Varennes. (Twenty-five miles from the frontier.) Louis, his wife, and son left Paris in the night. Louis imprudently showed himself at Varennes; captured and escorted to Paris. Louis had left in Paris a repudiation of his assent to every act of the Assembly since June 23, 1789. On his return to Paris he was provisionally suspended. Birth of a REPUBLICAN PARTY.

[August.] **Declaration of Pilnitz.** The Emperor, the King of Prussia, and the Count of Artois. France threatened with war if Louis was not restored to the throne with full power, and the Assembly dissolved.

[September 29.] The Constitutional Act. The Assembly collected all its work into one Act and disbanded. Louis had been restored to the throne and had accepted the Act amid scenes of great enthusiasm. The Assembly had decreed that none of its members could sit in its successor.

[October 1.] The Legislative Assembly. The deputies were "new men." More than half of them were under thirty years of age. The new Assembly was much more revolutionary than the old one.

Party Divisions.

The Right. A moderate party, devoted friends of the new Constitution and the supremacy of law.

The Left. THE GIRONDISTS. A band of deputies from the Gironde valley, prepared to defend the Revolution by any means, legal or not. The extremists, THE JACOBINS, led by DANTON, formed a small section of the Left. (Robespierre had not reached the front rank at this date.) MARAT, a physician, a scholar, and a writer of scientific works. By June, 1791, there were 406 affiliated Jacobin clubs. The Paris Club discussed questions which were to come before the Assembly and decided how its members should vote. CAMILLE DESMOULINS, the instigator of the Paris mob on July 12, 1789, the leader of the radical club, the Cordeliers.

The Centre. Held the balance of power. At first had no definite programme, but was attached to the Revolution.

Alarming Progress of Emigration. Officers deserted from the army and navy. Nobles abandoned their estates. The counterrevolution openly prepared at Brussels, Worms and Coblentz. The clergy were active enemies of the Revolution. Risings were prepared in the West and Centre of France.

[October 30.] The King's brother (afterwards Louis XVIII) ordered to return to France within two months on pain of forfeiting all his rights.

[November 9.] "The Émigrés" given till January 1 to disband, or be declared traitors, punishable with death and the confiscation of their estates.

[November 29.] Refractory clerics to be deprived of their posts. (May, 1792. Priests who refused to accept the Civil Constitution of the Clergy to be deported.) The King assented to the decree of October 30 and vetoed those of November 9 and 29.

Europe at War against Revolutionary France.

1792. [March 1.] Death of Leopold II. Accession of Francis II. Ascendancy of the war party at Vienna.

[March 29.] Murder of Gustavus III of Sweden. Sweden ceased her preparations for war and adopted a policy of absolute neutrality.

[April 20.] Louis compelled to declare war on Austria.

[May.] France declared war against Sardinia.

Dumouriez, the French Minister for Foreign Affairs, prepared a vigorous offensive.

The Austrian Netherlands welcomed the French, but two French columns fled at the first attacks.

The arrival of the news at Paris roused the mob.

[June 20.] The Paris mob burst into the Tuileries, insulted the King, who was compelled to place "a red cap of liberty" on his head. LAFAYETTE left the army and returned to Paris to restore order and protect the constitutional monarchy, but the National Guard refused to follow him in his plan of closing the clubs and dispersing the Jacobins.

[July.] Prussia declared War on France. The Duke of Brunswick elected commander-in-chief. An army of 70,000 Prussians and 68,000 Austrians, Hessians and Émigrés prepared to invade France.

[July 26.] Manifesto of Brunswick. Louis to be restored to his old authority; Paris to be held responsible for the safety of the French royal family, on pain of a military occupation and total destruction; any town resisting the march of the army to be destroyed and the inhabitants treated as rebels.

The manifesto excited a NATIONAL RISING in France.

[August 10.] Attack on the Tuileries led by the men of Marseilles. 500 members of the National Guard of Marseilles marched to Paris, singing the "Marseillaise," composed by Rouget de Lisle at Strasbourg. Louis sought refuge with the Assembly. About 1000 of Louis' Swiss Guards massacred. Rise of a new revolutionary commune. Louis imprisoned in the Temple. Lafayette failed to carry his army with him in favour of the constitutional monarchy. Retired to Holland en route for America, and was captured. After four years harsh imprisonment he was released by the treaty of Campo Formio. Lafayette was "the general of the middle class," "a man of pure political life and beautiful character, a true lover of liberty." Danton became the leader of the Paris Commune.

The Prussians crossed the frontier. Captured Longwy [August 24] and Verdun [September 2]. Beginning of the insurrection in LA VENDÉE. Immense excitement in Paris and wholesale arrests of persons suspected of disaffection. Danton advocated the adoption of a policy of terrorism.

[September 2 to 6.] The September Massacre, or the Massacre of the Prisons. A band of about 300 murderers, organised by the Paris Commune, purged the prisons. No one was punished.

[September 20.] The Cannonade of Valmy. An insignificant action of immense moral value. Dumouriez by skilful manœuvres had delayed the march of Brunswick, who attacked the French on the hill of Valmy and was repulsed. Prussia anxious about the designs of Russia against Poland. Dumouriez raised the siege of Lille and the Austrians fell back on JEMAPPES in front of Mons.

[November 6.] Battle of Jemappes. French victory. The

Austrian Netherlands welcomed the French.

[November 7.] Dumouriez entered Mons, Brussels [November 14], Liège [November 28]. Namur and Antwerp were occupied by his subordinates. By the middle of December the French had overrun the whole of the Austrian Netherlands. Nice and Savoy had been occupied without a battle. The French occupied Mainz [October 21] and reached the Rhine.

Dumouriez wished to give the Netherlands their independence, but the Jacobins wished to propagate revolutionary ideas. Dumouriez visited Paris, quarrelled with the Jacobins, and returned to the Netherlands to organise the overthrow of the Paris government.

The Convention. 1792-1795.

The new Assembly met on September 20. It contained the most famous members of the two previous assemblies.

(a) The Girondists.

(b) The Jacobins. Named the Mountain from the high benches where they sat. They included nearly all the Paris republicans. Robespierre, Danton, Marat, Collot-d'Herbois.

(c) The Plain. The deputies who sat on the lower seats. At first neutral in the quarrel between the Girondists and the Jacobins about the responsibility for the September massacres, but later siding with the Jacobins, who were supported by the Paris Commune and the revolutionary clubs.

[September 21.] Proclamation of the Republic.

1794. A new revolutionary calendar established. September 22, 1792, declared the first day of the YEAR I OF FRENCH LIBERTY. The year was divided into twelve months of thirty days each; the month was divided into three decades, and every tenth day was a holiday; there were five extra days at the end of the year, all being holidays. Every fourth year had a sixth complementary day. The days and months were renamed.

Trial and Execution of Louis XVI. ROBESPIERRE began to figure in the front rank. His popularity was increased by the attacks

of the Girondists. The discovery of Louis' "Iron Chest" in the Tuileries, containing proofs of the Court complicity in all the royalist intrigues against the Revolution, sealed the King's fate. Tried before the Convention. The Jacobins secured a verdict for death, the majority of the Girondists voting with the Jacobins to avoid the charge of royalist sympathies. LOUIS EXECUTED three days later [January 21, 1793].

The news of the King's execution aroused anger in England.

The French ambassador expelled.

[February 1.] Declaration of War on England and Holland.

The First Coalition against France. 1793.

In six months Pitt concluded seven treaties of alliance with. HANOVER [March 4], RUSSIA [March 25], SPAIN [May 25], NAPLES and the two Sicilies [July 12], PRUSSIA [July 14], THE EMPEROR [August 30], and PORTUGAL [September 26], and promised large subsidies to AUSTRIA and PRUSSIA.

The English House of Commons voted an extraordinary levy of £80,000,000.

The Convention decreed a levy of 300,000, by conscription if necessary. Dumouriez invaded Holland with 20,000. The French on the Lower Meuse defeated and Dumouriez ordered to take command of the French army in the Netherlands. The Jacobins became more bitter against the Girondists.

The Vendéan Rising. The rising of the peasants was primarily caused by the conscription of recruits and was organised by the nobles and the priests. The Commune outlawed all nobles and priests who joined the rebels and declared the Emigrés banished for ever on pain of death, and their goods confiscated. Risings occurred throughout Brittany and among the mountains of Auvergne.

[March 21.] Battle of Neerwinden. Dumouriez completely defeated by the Austrians. The French driven out of the Netherlands. Dumouriez tried to win over his army to march against the Convention and failing fled to the Austrians. The Convention declared him a traitor and decreed the establishment of the com-MITTEE OF PUBLIC SAFETY [April]. Robespierre and Marat led the attack on the Girondists.

[May 31]. The Convention invaded by an organised mob of 80,000 Parisians, who demanded the arrest of the Girondist deputies. The Paris Commune and the Jacobin Club masters of the Convention. [July 13.] Assassination of Marat by Charlotte Corday "to save the Republic." He became a popular hero.

Girondist Risings. LYONS, MARSEILLES, and more than sixty departments witnessed risings in favour of the Girondist deputies. Continued success of the Vendéans, who captured Saumur and Angers, and attacked Nantes. England declared French ports in a state of blockade.

[September.] The Convention passed the LAW OF THE MAXIMUM, fixing the maximum price for all necessities, and the LAW OF THE SUSPECTS, giving power to arrest any who could be suspected of disliking the new régime. The Deputies on Mission, originated in August, 1792, aided in the vigorous suppression of Girondist movements in the army and in the provinces. They had full powers of arrest.

Victories of the Convention. The war against the Vendéans pursued with vigour. Defeated at Nantes, the Vendéans migrated into Brittany, where they were again defeated. Policy of extermination adopted.

[October 16.] Battle of Wattignies. THE AUSTRIANS defeated. TOULON captured in spite of the presence of English and Spanish warships.

The Terror organised by the Committee of Public Safety. Massacres at Lyons, Toulon, Nantes.

[October 16.] MARIE ANTOINETTE executed. Attack on the Girondists in the Convention.

[October 31.] Twenty-one of the leaders executed.

[1793. April to September, executions in Paris averaged three a week.

1793. September to 1794 June, thirty-two a week.

1794. June and July, 196 a week.

Danton executed (April 5, 1794) for opposing the policy of terrorism.]

The Campaign of 1794. The French invaded the Netherlands.

[June 26.] Battle of Fleurus. Jourdan defeated the English and Austrians, and occupied Brussels. The English and Dutch retired to Holland, the Austrians behind the Meuse. The French gained further victories on the Rhine, the Alps, and the Pyrenees. Howe's victory of the GLORIOUS FIRST OF JUNE, the only check to the French.

The Fall of Robespierre. The execution of Danton left Robespierre supreme. He dominated the Committee of Public Safety and the Jacobin Club.

[June 8.] Robespierre presided as a kind of high priest at a festival organised in honour of the "SUPREME BEING" as the inauguration of the Reign of Virtue. The high-water mark of Robespierre's popularity. Robespierre attacked his enemies in the Convention. The moderates united against him and after a fierce debate in the Convention Robespierre and several of his chief supporters were placed under arrest. The National Guard rescued him and escorted him to the Hôtel-de-Ville, the headquarters of the Paris Commune. The Convention declared Robespierre and his adherents outlaws and attacked the Hôtel-de-Ville with regular troops. Robespierre was captured and executed with twenty-five of his chief supporters [July 28].

The Convention regained its power and the system of terrorism was abandoned. The Jacobin clubs were closed and CARRIER, the most notorious of the terrorists, was tried and

executed.

Further French Victories. PICHEGRU, supported by the opponents of the Stadtholder in Holland, occupied Leyden, Amsterdam, and Utrecht, and captured the Dutch fleet in the Texel. The whole of Holland was in French hands by the end of January 1795. The Stadtholder escaped to England. Proclamation of THE BATAVIAN REPUBLIC.

1795. [March.] The Treaty of Paris closely united the two republics. The Austrian Netherlands were organised as part of the French Republic. Prussia, menaced from Holland and the Rhine, signed THE TREATY OF BÂLE [April 5], by which she ceded her territory on the left bank of the Rhine. Frederick William, King of Prussia, was anxious to take part in the final partition of Poland (see Appendix E).

[July.] Peace signed with Spain. GODOY, "the Prince of Peace," had accepted French bribes. The French invaded Italy, and risings in Brittany, supported by England, were suppressed [June to October].

These victories encouraged the moderates in the Convention to demand a REVISED CONSTITUTION.

[October 5.] 40,000 National Guards, royalists or constitutiona-

lists, attacked the Convention. NAPOLEON swept them away with cannon "the whiff of grapeshot," and saved the Republic.

The Constitution of the Year III (1795).

The work of the Convention.

- (a) The Executive placed in the hands of FIVE DIRECTORS, who had power to appoint the ministers, control the army and navy, direct foreign policy, but no voice in legislation. The Directors and Ministers were not to be chosen from members of the Legislative Body.
- (b) The Legislature. A COUNCIL OF ANCIENTS of 250 deputies of a minimum age of 45 years, and A COUNCIL OF FIVE HUNDRED. Deputies of the latter to be 30 years of age and upwards, to have the initiation of all money bills and to prepare decrees for the Council of Ancients. A majority in both councils necessary for all legislation. One-third of both councils to retire annually. The directors to be elected by both councils in a joint sitting. One Director to retire annually. Every citizen, who had lived a year in one place and paid taxes, voted for "electors" who elected the 750 deputies.

[October 26.] The Convention declared an Amnesty for all political offences since the declaration of the Republic and its own dissolution. The Directory 1795 [November]—1799 [November].

The thirteen armies of the Republic organised into four. About 300,000 men under arms. The treaty of Bâle had ended the war in the north, and AN ARMISTICE was signed between the French and the Austrians [December 21].

1796. Napoleon's Italian Campaign.

THE DIRECTORY decided to attack Austria in Italy. NAPOLEON placed in command.

Carnot, "the organiser of victory," had discerned his ability. Born in 1769 in Corsica, which had been annexed to France in 1768, Napoleon's native language was Italian. 1779-84 he was at the military school at Brienne. His first action of note was at the siege of Toulon. Barras, one of the Directors, chose him to defend the Convention. Married Josephine Beauharnais.

[March.] Napoleon took up his command. Restored "the army of Italy" to discipline and efficiency. Turned the Maritime Alps and defeated the Sardinians in five battles. Sardinia signed THE ARMISTICE OF CHERASCO [April 28], and ceded Savoy and Nice

to France. Napoleon crossed the Po, defeated the Austrians at LODI [May 10], cleared Lombardy of Austrian troops, and entered Milan. The dukes of Parma and Modeno submitted. The Austrians sent 70,000 men to recover Lombardy, and Napoleon defeated them with 40,000 men at CASTIGLIONE [August 5]. A new Austrian army of 60,000 men defeated at ARCOLA [November 16]. A third Austrian army defeated at RIVOLI [January 14–15, 1797]. MANTUA surrendered to Napoleon [February 2]. Napoleon attacked the PAPAL STATES and forced the Pope to sign a treaty. Napoleon turned against the Austrians and, advancing within two days' march of Vienna [April], compelled Austria to sign peace preliminaries at LEOBEN.

- (i) The Rhine recognised as the French frontier.
- (ii) Austria ceded Milan in exchange for Venetia.
- (iii) Renounced all claims to the Netherlands, which were annexed to France.
 - (iv) Recognised the creation of the Cisalpine Republic.
- (v) The Republic of Genoa reconstructed as the Ligurian Republic.

[October.] Treaty of Campo Formio. The terms embodied in the formal treaty. END OF THE FIRST COALITION.

1796. [August.] Spain joined France against England.

1797. [February.] Battle of St. Vincent.

[October.] Battle of Camperdown. The Directors ordered the Dutch fleet to leave the Texel. Duncan's victory.

1795. Hoche defeated the Émigrés at Quiberon Bay and pacified Brittany and La Vendée.

1796. [July.] The Directory announced that the whole of

France was at peace.

[December.] Napoleon received at Paris with great enthusiasm as the victor in eighteen pitched battles and the conqueror of Italy.

1797 [September 18.] DEATH OF HOCHE. Left Napoleon without a rival.

1798. [February.] The murder of a French general at Rome was followed by the removal of the Pope and the proclamation of the ROMAN REPUBLIC.

[April.] Risings in Switzerland led to French intervention and the proclamation of the HELVETIAN REPUBLIC.

[November.] The French conquered Piedmont. The King fled to Sardinia.

1799. [January.] THE PARTHENOPIAN REPUBLIC established at Naples, after the flight of the King to Sicily, where he was maintained by the English fleet.

[March.] The French occupied Florence.

Napoleon's Egyptian Campaign.

1798. [May 19.] Napoleon left Toulon, captured Malta and conquered Alexandria [July 1]. Entered Cairo and defeated the Mamelukes in the BATTLE OF THE PYRAMIDS.

[August 1.] THE BATTLE OF THE NILE. Nelson's victory of Aboukir Bay.

[September.] THE LAW OF THE CONSCRIPTION passed. All Frenchmen between the ages of twenty and twenty-five liable to service.

1799. [Spring.] Napoleon's Syrian Campaign. Napoleon repulsed at Acre by the Turks aided by the English fleet. The French army reached Cairo [June] after severe losses.

Pitt's Second Coalition, 1799.

Created by Nelson's victory of the Nile. Russia took the lead. Catherine II had died in 1796 and the Emperor Paul declared war on France. England, Russia, Austria, Naples, Portugal, and Turkey allied against France. Suvorov with a combined Russo-Austrian army drove the French from all north Italy except the Genoese coast-line. Naples had been recaptured from the French [June] and King Ferdinand had overthrown the Parthenopian Republic. Joubert had been defeated and killed by Suvorov at NOVI [August]. Crossing the Alps Suvorov was two days too late to prevent Masséna winning a great battle at zürich, and forcing the main Austrian army back to the Danube. An Anglo-Russian army failed in Holland, which the English agreed to evacuate. The French maintained their positions on the Rhine, and the Czar, disgusted with England and Austria, recalled his armies [October].

NAPOLEON left his army in Egypt, landed in France [October 9] and reached Paris [October 16].

[November 9] A military revolution abolished the Directory, and created a provisional government of THREE CONSULS. The Constitution was revised and the new Constitution officially proclaimed [December 24].

The Constitution of the Year VIII (1799).

(a) THE EXECUTIVE.

Three Consuls, nominated for ten years. The first consult to be perpetual president and to possess all administrative power. The Consuls nominated the Ministers, the Council of State, and the Senate of eighty members holding office for life.

- (b) THE LEGISLATIVE.
 - (i) THE LEGISLATIVE BODY of three hundred deputies, nominated by the Senate from a list of deputies elected by the Departments, to consider any measure inaugurated by the COUNCIL OF STATE after it had been first submitted to THE TRIBUNATE of one hundred members, who could only approve or disapprove, not amend. The Tribunate was nominated by the Senate from the "National List" elected by the taxpayers of the departments.
 - (ii) The Senate could annul any measure passed by the Legislative Body, if it declared it contrary to the spirit of the Constitution.
 - (iii) The Legislative Body alone voted the taxes.

Napoleon as first Consul became the virtual ruler of France, the Second and Third Consuls being little more than his agents or assistants.

- (a) The government of France centralised by the appointment of a prefect over every department, and a sub-prefect over every sub-division of the department. Mayors and police commissioners appointed in every town. This system has continued with few changes to the present day.
- (b) More than 150,000 Émigrés, chiefly priests, allowed to return to France.
- (c) The clergy allowed to resume their duties on taking an oath to obey the Constitution.
 - (d) Proclamation of an amnesty for most political offences.
- (e) The system of collecting the taxes reformed and the Bank of France instituted.
- (f) A commission appointed to draw up a Civil Code of Laws, THE CODE NAPOLÉON, one of Napoleon's most beneficial reforms. It is used to-day in France and, with slight alterations, in Holland, Belgium, Italy, and several states in Germany. The criminal and commercial laws were also codified.

The War. 1800-2.

Napoleon won over Paul I and made overtures to Frederick William III of Prussia. Negotiations opened with the Pope for the re-establishment of the Catholic Church in France. Unable to attack England, Napoleon Turned Against Austria. Moreau placed in command of the Army of the Danube. Napoleon took charge of the Second Army of Italy of 40,000 men. Masséna still held out at Genoa, which the Austrians captured [June 4]. Napoleon crossing the Great St. Bernard Pass [May], cut off the retreat of the Austrians from Genoa.

[June 14.] Battle of Marengo. The Austrians withdrew to the east of the Mincio, and Genoa, Piedmont, and the Milanese submitted to the French. Napoleon returned to Paris. Moreau, advancing slowly into Bavaria, crushed the Austrians at HOHEN-LINDEN [December 3], and advanced within striking distance of Vienna. The Army of Italy had advanced into Venetia and was marching upon Vienna from the south-west, when Austria sued for peace.

1801. [February 9.] Treaty of Lunéville ended the Second Coalition.

- (i) All the conditions of the treaty of Campo Formio ratified.
- (ii) The independence of the Helvetian, Ligurian, and Cisalpine republics recognised.
- (iii) Tuscany to be renamed the Kingdom of Etruria and given to the Duke of Parma, a relative of the King of Spain.
- (iv) The Pope restored to his dominions with the exception of the Legations of Ferrara and Bologna.
- (v) France to nominate the Doge of the Ligurian Republic (the old territory of Genoa).
- (vi) The King of the Two Sicilies allowed to retain his dominions,
- 1801. [March.] Murder of the Emperor Paul of Russia, who had become an ardent admirer of Napoleon, and accession of his son, ALEXANDER I. Russia, Prussia, Denmark, and Sweden had united in a NEUTRAL LEAGUE to exclude English ships from the Baltic.
- [April 2.] Dissolution of the league by the English naval victory of the BATTLE OF COPENHAGEN.

[September.] The French evacuated Egypt after being driven

out of Cairo and Alexandria, and were conveyed to France in English ships.

- 1802. [March.] Treaty of Amiens between France and England. Pitt had resigned [February, 1801] on the Irish Catholic Question.
 - (i) England to restore her conquests except Ceylon and Trinidad.
 - (ii) France to evacuate Naples and the Papal territory.
 - (iii) Egypt to be restored to Turkey.
 - (iv) England to restore Malta to the Knights of St. John, subject to thirteen specified conditions.
- 1801. [July.] The Concordat with the Pope gave France religious peace. The Catholic religion recognised as the religion of the majority of Frenchmen. The clergy to take an oath of allegiance to the French government and to receive State salaries. The First Consul to nominate all bishops, who were then to be invested by the Pope. The Pope to surrender all claims to Church property alienated since 1789.
 - 1802. [May.] Napoleon elected first consul for life.

CHAPTER III

THE NAPOLEONIC WARS. 1803-14

Napoleon annexed Elba, Parma, Piedmont, and Piacenza, and elected Mediator of the Swiss Republic after Switzerland had been invaded by a French army. England refused to relinquish Malta. Vigorous English Press attacks on Napoleon.

1803. [May 17.] The English ambassador left Calais. French

troops overran Hanover. Napoleon's plans for the INVASION OF ENGLAND. 2,000 small boats for transport, 16,000 sailors, 160,000 men, 9,000 horses and numerous guns collected in the ports of

Boulogne, Étaples, Ambleteuse, and Calais.

1804. A plot of the Count of Artois and some French Emigrés to murder Napoleon failed and Napoleon sought to strike terror into the Bourbon party by kidnapping the young DUC D'ENGHIEN, a Bourbon prince, quite innocent of the conspiracy, in the neutral state of Baden, and executing him [March] as an Emigré, who had fought against France. "A grave political error."

[May 18.] Napoleon elected Emperor of the French by a majority of 3,500,000 votes. The Pope attended the coronation at

Paris [December 2].

[December 7.] Francis II declared himself Francis I, EMPEROR OF AUSTRIA, and abandoned the title of Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire.

1805. [May.] Napoleon was crowned at Milan. After his return to Paris he joined the "Army of England" at Boulogne.

Pitt's Third Coalition: 1805.

Pitt concluded treaties of alliance with Russia [April 11] and with Austria [August 9]. Napoleon at Boulogne learnt that 90,000 Austrians had invaded Bavaria, 30,000 had occupied the Tyrol, 100,000 were moving towards North Italy, and that two Russian Armies were preparing to co-operate. He raised a levy of 80,000 men, and crossing the Rhine [October 1], entered Bavaria [October 6] at the head of 160,000. Masséna was sent to Italy. Napoleon

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forced the Austrian general, Mack, to surrender with 33,000 men at ULM [October 20] and occurred VIENNA [November 13].

[October 21.] Battle of Trafalgar.

[December 2.] Battle of Austerlitz. Napoleon's most brilliant victory. 80,000 French against 95,000 Russians and Austrians. The allies lost 15,000 killed and wounded, 20,000 prisoners, and 189 guns. The Russians withdrew in disgust and Austria concluded an armistice.

[December 26.] Treaty of Pressburg. Austria ceded Venetia. Istria, and Dalmatia to the new kingdom of Italy; the Tyrol and Swabia to Bavaria.

1806. [January 1.] The Republican Calendar in France abandoned.

[January 23.] Death of Pitt.

[March.] Joseph Bonaparte declared King of the Two Sicilies.

[June.] Louis Bonaparte declared King of Holland.

[July.] THE CONFEDERATION OF THE RHINE created, separated from the Germanic Confederation, with Napoleon as "Protector." The Fox-Grenville ministry in England opened negotiations with Napoleon, who offered to restore Hanover, which he had given to Prussia. FREDERICK WILLIAM PREPARED FOR WAR and ordered Napoleon to withdraw across the Rhine.

[October 14.] Battles of Jena and Auerstadt. The Prussians crushed.

[October 25.] THE FRENCH ENTERED BERLIN. Poland overrun and WARSAW OCCUPIED [December 15].

1807. [February 8.] Napoleon with 60,000 men attacked 80,000 Russians entrenched at EYLAU. Both armies lost about 35,000 men, and the French remained undisturbed in their quarters during the remainder of the winter.

[May.] The French captured Danzig.

[June 14.] Complete defeat of the Russians at FRIEDLAND with the loss of 25,000 men and 80 cannon.

[June 25.] Napoleon met the Emperor Alexander at Tilsit on the Niemen.

[July 7.] Treaty of Tilsit. Alexander accepted the Continental Blockade. Napoleon promised not to restore the independence of Poland and to assist Russia to obtain the Danubian Principalities from Turkey. Alexander advised to take Finland from Sweden.

Humiliation of Prussia.

(i) The whole of Prussian Poland taken to form the greater part of the GRAND DUCHY OF WARSAW, created by Napoleon.

(ii) The Rhenish and Westphalian provinces of Prussia united with the principality of Hesse-Cassel to form the KINGDOM OF WESTPHALIA for Napoleon's brother Jerome.

(iii) East Frisia taken from Prussia and given to Holland.

(iv) Prussia to limit her army to 42,000 men and to support French garrisons in her chief fortresses.

In a secret treaty the Czar agreed to join Napoleon against England, if England did not restore her conquests made since 1805 and abate her maritime claims, and to support Napoleon in compelling Denmark, Sweden, and Portugal to join the Continental Blockade. Canning heard of the arrangement and despatched eighty ships to Copenhagen to demand the surrender of the Danish fleet. On Denmark's refusal Copenhagen was bombarded for four days and the Danish fleet was surrendered [September 5] and interned in English waters. Denmark became the firm ally of Napoleon, and the Czar declared war on England [November 7].

The Continental System.

1806. The English Government declared the coast from the mouth of the Elbe to Brest in a state of blockade.

[November 21.] Napoleon replied with THE BERLIN DECREE, declaring a blockade of the British Isles. All English ships and goods and all ships that had called at a port of Great Britain or her colonies to be seized.

1807. [January.] An English Order in Council forbade neutrals to trade with the ports of France or her allies or any state observing the Berlin Decree, but granted licences to neutral ships on condition that they first called at a British port and paid a heavy export duty.

[December 17.] Napoleon's MILAN DECREE declared any ship of any country liable to seizure, if it had accepted England's licence to trade.

By 1808 all continental states except Turkey and Sweden had accepted Napoleon's Continental System. 1809. Sweden compelled to join.

1808. [September.] Conference at Erfurt. Napoleon and Alexander met to discuss the political situation. The complete accord of Tilsit gone; Alexander distrustful of Napoleon's plans. Napoleon had lost prestige by the capitulations at Baylen and Cintra in Spain.

The Peninsular War. 1808-14.

1806. Portugal refused to close her ports to English ships.

1807. [October.] Treaty of Fontainebleau. France and Spain to unite in the conquest of Portugal.

[November.] Junot with a French army entered Lisbon. The Portuguese royal house escaped to Brazil, and Napoleon administered Portugal as a conquered state. Intervened in Spain when the heir to the throne, Ferdinand, headed a revolt against Godoy, the favourite of his father, Charles IV.

1808. [February-March.] Popular risings followed the French occupation of the fortresses of northern Spain. Charles IV abdicated and his son was declared King as Ferdinand VII. Ferdinand induced to meet Napoleon and Charles IV at Bayonne, and compelled to abdicate the throne. Charles surrendered all his claims to Napoleon, who declared the throne vacant. Charles retired to Rome and Ferdinand kept under guard in France till 1814.

[June 6.] Joseph Bonaparte proclaimed "King of Spain and the Indies." Murat made King of Naples in place of Joseph. Popular risings in Spain.

[July 20.] Joseph crowned King at Madrid.

[July 20.] A flying column of 20,000 men under Dupont captured at BAYLEN in Andalusia.

Wellesley sent to Portugal with 18,000 English troops.

[August 21.] Junot defeated at VIMEIRO. Wellesley had been superseded during the battle and the English commander, Dalrymple, signed the convention of Cintra, in which Junot agreed to evacuate Portugal. The victorious generals were recalled and SIR JOHN MOORE took command. Joseph with his French army retired across the Ebro. After the Conference of Erfurt, Napoleon with his veteran soldiers and best generals joined Joseph. In a few weeks the Spaniards were defeated in three pitched battles and Napoleon entered Madrid [December 14].

1808. [February.] The French occupied Rome on the Pope's refusal to expel English subjects and enforce the Continental Blockade.

1809. [May.] The Papal States declared part of the French Empire. Pius VII excommunicated Napoleon and was arrested and imprisoned.

Moore invaded north-west Spain to draw Napoleon away from Andalusia. The famous march to CORUNNA. Napoleon received word that Austria was stirring, and leaving Soult to continue the

pursuit of Moore departed for France.

1809. [January 16.] BATTLE OF CORUNNA. Death of Moore, but successful embarkation of his army. Soult occupied Oporto. Wellesley returning in command of the English forces, drove Soult out of Oporto and advanced into Spain.

[July 27.] BATTLE OF TALAVERA saved Portugal. The French conquered Andalusia, Gibraltar and Cadiz alone holding out.

(1809. THE WALCHEREN EXPEDITION wasted 40,000 men in an attempt to capture Antwerp.)

- 1810. Napoleon sent MASSÉNA, his greatest general, to drive the English out of the Peninsula. Soult and Masséna to march simultaneously on Lisbon. Soult captured Badajoz, but advanced no farther. Masséna drove Wellington out of Spain, but was defeated at BUSACO [September 27] by Wellington, who continued his retreat to Lisbon. Masséna held up before Lisbon during the winter by the LINES OF TORRES VEDRAS.
- 1811. Masséna retreated into Spain and was defeated by Wellington at FUENTES DE ONOR [May 5]. Beresford, sent to besiege Badajoz, defeated Soult at ALBUERA [May 16]: Wellington formed the sieges of Badajoz and Ciudad-Rodrigo, and Masséna was recalled in disgrace and succeeded by Marmont. (1812. Napoleon at war with Russia.)

1812. The English captured CIUDAD-RODRIGO [January] and BADAJOZ [April].

[July 22.] Wellington defeated Marmont at Salamanca. Joseph Bonaparte left Madrid and all French troops were recalled to the north of the Ebro.

[August 12.] WELLINGTON ENTERED MADRID, but failed in an attack on Burgos and retreated into Portugal. Joseph returned to Madrid. (1813. Prussia [March] and Austria [August] declared war on Napoleon.)

1813. Wellington marched to cut off Madrid from the north. Joseph and the French troops evacuated Madrid.

[June 21.] Battle of Vittoria. The French had about 60,000 men and 150 cannon and were in a strong position; the English had 80,000 including Portuguese and Spaniards, and 90 cannon. The French defeat turned into a rout. All the artillery, military stores, and the spoils of the French occupation fell to the allies. The French evacuated all Spain south of the Ebro. Napoleon, hearing at Dresden of the French defeat, despatched Soult to take command

of all the French forces at Bayonne and on the Spanish frontier. Soult attempted to relieve Pamplona and was defeated in the BATTLE OF THE PYRENEES. The English carried St. Sebastian by storm after an heroic defence [August 31]. Pamplona surrendered [October 31].

[October 8.] Wellington crossed the Bidassoa and entered France. Soult from his base at Bayonne fought desperately and brilliantly. The allies lost 5,000, and the French 6,000. Wellington laid siege to Bayonne. Soult left 6,000 men in Bayonne and stood at bay with 40,000 men at ORTHEZ. Wellington with an army of equal strength routed the French. Bordeaux declared for the Bourbons. Soult fell back on TOULOUSE and was again defeated [April 10]. Wellington entered Toulouse [April 12] and learnt that Paris had accepted Louis XVIII.

The War against Austria. 1809.

The Treaty of Pressburg aroused bitter resentment in Austria and the events in Spain encouraged her to prepare for a new war.

England was her only ally.

1809. [April.] The Austrian Archduke Charles advanced into Bavaria with 170,000 men. Napoleon took command of the French and defeated the Austrians in five pitched battles in five days. The Austrians lost 30,000 men, and Napoleon entered Vienna [May 12]. When he attempted to cross the Danube to attack the main Austrian army under the Archduke, his bridge of boats was swept away and his army was entrenched on the ISLAND OF LOBAU for six weeks. Reinforcements arrived from Italy and the crossing was safely completed with 180,000 men [July 5].

[July 6.] Battle of Wagram. The Archduke was completely

defeated with the loss of 30,000 men.

[July 15.] The Austrians asked for an armistice. [October 14.] Treaty of Vienna.

(i) Austria ceded Trieste, Carniola, Istria, and part of Croatia to Napoleon.

(ii) The Tyrolese and part of Salzburg ceded to Bavaria.

(iii) Western Galicia ceded to and joined to the Grand Duchy of Warsaw. Austria lost her maritime provinces and four and a half million subjects.

(iv) Austria accepted the Continental System.

(v) Her army limited to 150,000 men. (Metternich became the Austrian Chancellor of State.)

1809. A REVOLUTION IN SWEDEN deposed the King and placed his uncle on the throne. 1810. As the King was old and had no heir, the Swedes elected Bernadotte, one of Napoleon's marshals,

as Prince Regent with Napoleon's approval (November).

1809. (December.) Napoleon divorced Josephine as he had no heir, and in 1810 (April) married Marie Louise, the daughter of the Emperor and the niece of Marie Antoinette, after first approaching Alexander with a view to marrying a Russian princess. 1811 [March]. Birth of a son, the King of Rome. He lived at Vienna after 1814 and died 1832.

The Russian War. 1812.

Alexander resented the creation of the Grand Duchy of Warsaw and there was much discontent in Russia at the effects of the Continental System. Alexander's refusal of Napoleon's request for the hand of a Russian princess.

- 1810. Napoleon had annexed the Duchy of Oldenburg, whose duke was the husband of Alexander's favourite sister.
- 1812. [May.] THE TREATY OF BUCHAREST between Russia and Turkey freed Russia for a war with France, and Russia entered into negotiations with England. The ostensible cause of the war was Russia's refusal to prevent neutral ships entering Russian ports. Diplomatic and military preparations occupied the year 1811 and the spring of 1812. Napoleon retained the friendship of the POLES, and PRUSSIA promised to aid him with 20,000 men. Berlin and the Prussian fortresses on the Oder were to be garrisoned by French troops. TURKEY refused Napoleon's overtures. AUSTRIA promised to aid Napoleon with 30,000 men.
- 1812. [March.] SWEDEN signed a treaty of alliance with Russia and was promised Norway in return for aid against Napoleon. (Bernadotte had no love for Napoleon and Sweden resented the Continental System.)

[March 9.] NAPOLEON LEFT PARIS. Held his Court at Dresden, attended by the Emperor of Austria, the King of Prussia, and every German sovereign.

[June 22.] War declared against Russia. Napoleon had 600,000 men under arms.

[June 24.] Crossed the Niemen with 325,000, only 125,000 being French. August 18, captured Smolensk.

[September 17.] Battle of Borodino. The Russians lost 50,000 men and the French 30,000. Napoleon's ammunition was seriously depleted.

[September 14.] Napoleon entered Moscow. Two days later a fire began and raged for five days. Its cause is unknown. The French remained in Moscow a month after, their chief difficulty being lack of provisions for man and horse, not lack of shelter. Alexander refused to treat, and Napoleon delayed his return till October 15. Marshal Ney covered the retreat and won his title of "the bravest of the brave." The late commencement of the winter completed the discomfort of the French as the roads remained soft. Heavy rearguard losses owing to attacks of the Cossack cavalry.

[December 5.] Napoleon left the army on learning of a plot against him at Paris. The retreat became a rout, and only 20,000 men recrossed the Niemen out of 505,000 engaged during the war. Very few of the 125,000 Frenchmen returned.

1813. [January.] The French Senate decreed a special levy of 100,000 in addition to the ordinary conscription of 1813.

The War of Liberation.

The birth of the SPIRIT OF NATIONALITY in Prussia. 1807. Abolition of serfdom. 1810. Foundation of the University of Berlin. 1811. The peasants made proprietors of part of the land they tilled, and nobles allowed to take part in trade and commerce. The towns were given self-government. SCHARNHORST reformed the army. In 1806 only 695 out of about 8,000 officers were men without titles of nobility. The commissioned ranks opened to all, and a short-service system adopted, so that a large reserve could be created, as Napoleon limited the Prussian army to 42,000 men. Formation of secret societies for the liberation of Germany. 1813 [February]. Frederick William mobilised his forces. [March]. Joined Alexander. The French retired across the Elbe, leaving powerful garrisons in the chief Prussian fortresses. The Russians drove the French from Berlin, captured Hamburg [May], and Bernadotte, who had remained neutral in 1812, joined Germany with 12,000 men.

1812. [June.] The United States of America had declared war on England to resist England's claim to search her ships. No appreciable effect on the course of the European war.

1814. [December 24.] Treaty of Ghent.

1813. The First Campaign. Napoleon with 250,000 men invaded Saxony. The allies were defeated at LÜTZEN [May 2]. The whole allied army defeated at BAUTZEN [May 20], and Napoleon established his headquarters at Dresden. Hamburg had been re-

captured and the line of the Elbe secured. Napoleon invaded Silesia.

[June 3.] ARMISTICE OF PLESWITZ to arrange a congress at Prague.

[June 14.] England signed treaties of alliance and subsidy with Prussia, and with Russia [June 15].

[June 30.] Napoleon accepted AUSTRIA'S MEDIATION.

PROPOSED TERMS :-

- (i) Napoleon to be offered the boundaries of the Alps and the Rhine.
 - (ii) The Bourbons to be restored to Spain.
 - (iii) The independence of Holland to be recognised.
 - (iv) The Pope to be allowed to return to Rome.
- (v) Napoleon to cease to be head of the Confederation of the Rhine.
 - (vi) Murat to remain at Naples.
 - (vii) Jerome to remain on the throne of Westphalia.

[August 1.] The Emperor of Austria promised to join the allies with 200,000 men, if Napoleon refused the terms.

[August 12.] Austria declared war against France on Napoleon's refusal.

1813. Second Campaign. Napoleon had 300,000 men. The allies had three armies, 150,000 men in North Germany, 100,000 men in Silesia, and the main army of 270,000 Russians and Austrians which advanced on Dresden.

[August 26-27.] BATTLE OF DRESDEN. A brilliant victory for Napoleon, the allies losing vast stores and many cannon. The advantages of the victory were minimised by three French defeats in Germany.

[October 8.] Bavaria joined the allies with 36,000 men. Concentration on Leipzig.

[October 16-19.] Battle of Leipzig. "The Battle of the Nations." The Saxons and Würtembergers deserted Napoleon during the battle and the result was never in doubt. During the three days' fighting Napoleon lost 45,000 killed, wounded, or taken prisoners, 23,000 left in the military hospitals, and about 300 cannon. The allied loss had been nearly as heavy, so that a vigorous pursuit was impossible, and 70,000 French crossed the Rhine into safety [November 1 and 2]. Napoleon lost nearly half a million

men during the year. About 190,000 men had been left in German fortresses, most of whom had to surrender during the winter.

Napoleon obtained from the Senate a levy of 300,000 men and prepared for a new campaign. (Wellington laid siege to BAYONNE in December.)

[November 9.] The Proposals of Frankfort. ALLIED DISSENSIONS. England was suspicious of Russian designs, and Metternich had no desire to crush France. Frederick William of Prussia, cautious and hesitating, did not wish to cross the Rhine, and all the allied monarchs feared a revival of French enthusiasm. Metternich's proposals at Frankfort were accepted by England, Russia, Prussia, and Austria.

- (i) France to retain the boundaries of the Alps and the Rhine.
- (ii) The former rulers of Italy, Spain, and Holland to be restored.
- (iii) The unconditional independence of Germany to be recognised.

Napoleon delayed his reply till late in December and then demanded that in addition to the terms offered:

- (i) France should retain three towns on the right bank of the Rhine.
 - (ii) His brother Jerome should have a kingdom in Germany.
 - (iii) His stepson Eugène de Beauharnais should have a kingdom in Italy.
- 1814. The Third Campaign. One of the most brilliant of Napoleon's career. The allies placed three armies in the field.
 - (i) [December 31.] Blücher with about 90,000 men crossed the Rhine.
 - (ii) The Allied Grand Army of 250,000 men crossed at Bâle, turned the line of the Vosges mountains, and prepared to join Blücher in Champagne.
 - (iii) The Army of the North, under Bernadotte, invaded Holland and threatened Belgium.

Including the forces under Wellington the Allies had about 600,000 men. Napoleon had about 250,000 in the field, chiefly boy conscripts and National Guards untrained to war.

[January 25.] Napoleon struck first at Blücher, who had

scattered his forces on entering Champagne. Between January 29 and February 14 Blücher's army practically destroyed, and the main allied army fell back towards Troyes. Its commander, Schwartzenberg, defeated [February 17–18], asked for an armistice, which Napoleon refused. The evacuation of France prevented by Alexander and Castlereagh, the English Foreign Secretary, and Blücher reinforced by Russians and Austrians.

[February 5.] Negotiations opened at Châtillon. Napoleon was

offered the boundaries of pre-Revolutionary France.

[February 17.] Napoleon refused the terms.

[March I.] The Treaty of Chaumont. The formation of the QUADRUPLE ALLIANCE. England, Austria, Russia, and Prussia agreed to place 150,000 men each in the field and England promised to subsidise the Coalition with £5,000,000 yearly.

Growing discontent and exhaustion in France. Nearly 750,000 Frenchmen had been killed, wounded, or taken prisoners in 1812–13. The educated classes were demanding representative institutions, and there was a general desire for peace.

[March 7–9.] Blücher checked Napoleon, who turned against the main allied army and was again repulsed [March 20]. The two allied armies, about 200,000 men, marched direct on Paris, defended by about 28,000 men.

[March 31.] Alexander and Frederick William of Prussia entered Paris.

[April 4.] Napoleon's marshals informed him that the army refused to fight further. TALLEYRAND determined to secure the unity of France under the Bourbons and persuaded Alexander to abandon his candidate, Bernadotte. "Nothing remains but Bonaparte or the Bourbons." The Senate elected a provisional government with Talleyrand as President and declared that Napoleon had ceased to rule.

[April 6.] Napoleon abdicated unconditionally at Fontainebleu. [April 11.] The Provisional Treaty of Paris. Napoleon to retain the title of Emperor with £180,000 a year and the sovereignty of the island of Elba. The Empress Marie Louise to receive the

duchies of Parma and Piacenza.

[April 20.] Napoleon took leave of his Guard at Fontainebleau and departed for ELBA.

[April 23.] The Allies agreed to evacuate France.

[April 24.] Louis xviii landed at Calais.

Proclamation of a Constitution providing:-

- (i) Representative government.
- (ii) Parliamentary control of taxation.
- (iii) The inviolability of all property sold during the Revolution.
 - (iv) Freedom of the Press.
 - (v) Liberty of worship and religious opinions.
 - (vi) Equality of all before the law.

[May 3.] Louis entered Paris amid scenes of enthusiasm.

[May 30.] First Treaty of Paris. Negotiated by Talleyrand in the name of Louis XVIII.

- (i) The Bourbon monarchy to be restored.
- (ii) The frontiers of France to be those of November 1, 1792. [Dumouriez won the battle of Jemappes, November 6, and overran the Netherlands.] France gained a slight increase of territory as compared with 1789.
- (iii) France received her old colonies, except Tobago, St. Lucia and Mauritius.
- (iv) Belgium to be united to Holland as the Kingdom of the Netherlands, under the House of Orange.
- (v) Germany to be united into a confederation of sovereign states.
 - (vi) The monarchical states of Italy to be restored.
- (vii) Details and other questions to be discussed at a European congress to be held at Vienna.

CHAPTER IV

THE EUROPEAN SETTLEMENT

The Vienna Congress met, November 1, 1814, and sat till June 8, 1815. All the European states except Turkey were represented, but the real power was in the hands of a committee of eight, the signatories of the treaty of Paris—England, Russia, Austria, Prussia, France, Spain, Sweden, and Portugal.

Personalities. The Emperor Francis of Austria. The Emperor Alexander I of Russia. Frederick William, King of Prussia. Prince Metternich, the Austrian State-Chancellor. Lord Castlereagh, the English Foreign Secretary. Talleyrand, the French representative. Prince von Hardenberg, the Prussian diplomat.

The Work of the Congress. THE IDEAL: "The reconstruction of the moral order in Europe." "An enduring peace founded on a just redistribution of political forces." THE REALITY: "To divide among the conquerors the spoils of the conquered." "To revive the Balance of Power in Europe."

Alexander wished to receive the whole of Poland, and Frederick William desired the annexation of Saxony. The King of Saxony, the faithful ally of Napoleon, was a prisoner of war in the hands of the Allies. Talleyrand posed as the friend of the small states and won the support of England, jealous of Russia, and of Austria, jealous of Prussia.

- 1815. [January.] A secret treaty of alliance was signed by Talleyrand, Castlereagh and Metternich, and Alexander gave way.
 - 1. Russia retained the greater part of the Grand Duchy of Warsaw, the Emperor to be hereditary Grand Duke, and FINLAND, ceded by Sweden.
 - 2. Prussia received half the area of Saxony, containing one-third of its population, and a large territory on the left bank of the Rhine, including Cologne, Trèves, and Aix-la-Chapelle.

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- 3. Austria received Lombardy and Venetia in place of the Netherlands.
- 4. The Pope received the Papal States. (Usually the close ally of Austria, the strongest Catholic state in Europe.)
- 5. The Spanish Bourbons restored to the kingdom of the Two Sicilies. (1815 [Spring], Murat, defeated by Austrian troops. [Autumn], captured and executed.)
- 6. Modena given to a cousin of the Emperor of Austria, TUSCANY to a brother, and PARMA to a daughter, Marie Louise.
- 7. Piedmont restored to Victor Emanuel I, who received the territory of the old republic of GENOA. He was the only native ruler in Italy.
- 8. Holland and Belgium united as the Kingdom of the Netherlands under William of Orange, who also received the GRAND DUCHY OF LUXEMBURG.
 - 9. Spain restored to Ferdinand. Lost nothing but Trinidad.
- 10. Norway united to Sweden as a reward for Bernadotte's alliance in 1813 and as compensation for Finland and Swedish Pomerania, which was ceded to Prussia.
- 11. Switzerland organised as a confederacy of twenty-two independent cantons, placed under the guarantee of the Powers, and declared neutral for ever.
- 12. England received less than any other Power. Kept MALTA, HELIGOLAND, ceded by Denmark as a punishment for her fidelity to Napoleon; the protectorate of the IONIAN ISLANDS; TRINIDAD, ceded by Spain; THE MAURITIUS, ST. LUCIA, and TOBAGO, ceded by France; CEYLON, and the CAPE OF GOOD HOPE, paying £6,000,000 to Holland.
- 13. The Slave Trade was one of the chief interests of the English people, but Castlereagh had to be content with a declaration, signed by all the Powers, condemning the trade as "repugnant to the principles of civilisation and universal morality." France promised to abolish the trade after five and Spain after eight years.
- 1815. [March and June.] Napoleon's return to France disturbed, though it did not break up, the congress, which completed its labours a week before the battle of Waterloo.

The Holy Alliance. The dream of Alexander I. The treaty was signed by all the European states except England and the Pope. Castlereagh characterised it as "a piece of sublime mysticism and nonsense." The Christian religion to be the sole

basis of government; the contracting monarchs to aid one another like brothers on all occasions, and to recommend to their peoples the exercise of the duties of the Christian religion.

The Quadruple Alliance. England, Austria, Russia, and Prussia to exclude Napoleon or any relative of his from the throne of France; guarantee the security and integrity of their own states; secure the general peace of Europe by compelling all states to settle all disputes in congresses.

CHAPTER V

NAPOLEON-"THE LAST PHASE"

The Folly of the Restored Monarchy. The Charter issued by the King was dated "from the nineteenth year of the reign of Louis XVIII," recognising Louis' claim that he was King by "Divine Right." The tricolour flag replaced by the old Bourbon white flag. Notorious Émigrés, who had borne arms against France, were promoted to office and in favour at Court. The royal princes, led by the King's brother, the COUNT OF ARTOIS (afterwards Charles X), "More royalist than the King." During their exile "they had learnt nothing, and had forgotten nothing." The returned bishops issued violent anti-democratic proclamations. The franchise was limited to citizens paying 300 francs a year in direct taxation, 100,000 voters out of a population of 29,000,000 people. The King and the Court neglected the army.

1815. [March 1.] Napoleon landed near Cannes and was received with enthusiasm by the army and the people. Ney, who had sworn to bring him to Paris "in a cage," joined him. The journey through France was a triumphal progress, and Louis XVIII fled to Ghent.

[March 13.] The allies at Vienna denounced Napoleon "as an enemy and disturber of the repose of the world," and declared him an outlaw "abandoned to public justice."

[March 20.] NAPOLEON ENTERED PARIS amidst scenes of wild enthusiasm.

[March 25.] ENGLAND, RUSSIA, PRUSSIA, and AUSTRIA signed treaties of alliance, each promising to place 150,000 men in the field, and not to make a separate peace. Every other European state joined the league against France, and England voted £5,000,000 as subsidies to the Allies.

The War. Wellington placed in command of an army of 31,000 English, 29,000 Dutch and Belgians, and 23,000 Hanoverians to co-operate with BLÜCHER'S 120,000 Prussians. NAPOLEON with

130,000 men and 340 guns attempted to defeat the armies before

they could unite, and left Paris [June 12].

[June 15.] Wellington still at Brussels with the bulk of his army. A weak force of Dutch and Belgians at Quatre Bras, sixteen miles south. Blücher with three-quarters of his army was at Sombreffe, a few miles south-east of Quatre Bras.

[June 16.] BATTLE OF LIGNY. After a six-hours' struggle, the French captured the plateau behind Ligny, losing 12,000 men, and the Prussians, who had lost over 20,000, retreated in good order towards Wavre to the north. Simultaneously Nev was fighting the BATTLE OF QUATRE BRAS. Ney had delayed his attack on the weak Dutch and Belgian army, till Wellington had time to send reinforcements. The allies lost 4,500 men, the French slightly less. Wellington withdrew to Waterloo, and Napoleon detached Grouchy with 33,000 men to follow Blücher.

[June 17.] Napoleon joined Ney, and the French moved to within half a mile of the English army under Wellington.

[June 18.] Battle of Waterloo. Wellington had 68,000 men (including 24,000 English, 6,000 men of the King's German Legion, and about 11,000 Hanoverians), whilst Napoleon had 72,000 men, and was stronger in cavalry and guns. Both armies suffered from lack of food and had passed a miserable night in the rain. In advance of the English right was the château of Hougoumont, occupied by the English, where the battle opened about half-past eleven. At one o'clock Napoleon launched a series of cavalry charges on the English squares. Nev captured the farm-house of La Haye Sainte in front of the English centre and the key of the English position. The crisis of the battle. Napoleon ordered the advance of the Imperial Guard, led by Nev about seven o'clock. Its failure marked the end of the serious fighting. Blücher and his Prussians had been engaged on the British left, and Wellington ordered a general advance just after eight o'clock. The French retreat became a rout. Napoleon escaped to Paris. The French lost all their artillery, ammunition, and stores, and 37,000 men. killed, wounded, or prisoners. The English had lost 13,000 and the Prussians 7,000. Grouchy escaped to France without fighting.

[July 3.] Wellington and Blücher entered Paris. Napoleon HAD ABDICATED [June 22], and reached Rochefort [July 3]. Failing to escape to America, he surrendered on board the Bellerophon and sailed from English shores on board the Northumberland [August 3]

for St. Helena.

[November.] The Second Treaty of Paris. France reduced to the exact limits of 1789. To pay a war indemnity of £28,000,000, and £10,000,000 a year to support an army of occupation of 150,000 men in her chief frontier fortresses for five years. To restore all works of art taken from conquered countries during the wars.

CHAPTER VI

FRANCE. 1815-48

1815. [July.] Louis XVIII returned to Paris "in the baggage of the Allies," and adopted a reactionary policy.

An amnesty refused. Thirty-eight of the most prominent men in France banished and NEV executed. The White Terror in the south of France rivalled the Red Terror of the Revolution. Wholesale pillage and murder, and hundreds of executions. Most of the great men who had helped to govern France since 1793 driven into exile. Returned Émigrés in favour at the Court. The DUC DE RICHELIEU, who had passed the last twenty years in exile in Russia, became head of the Ministry. Laws passed suspending the liberty of the Press and restricting individual liberty. A large sum of money voted to compensate the Émigrés. The Church obtained control over education. The divorce laws repealed. The Church failed to obtain the restoration of its estates, alienated since 1789, though the discussion of the question alarmed the holders.

1816. Louis alarmed, dissolved the Ultra-Royalist Chamber, and dismissed Richelieu.

1818. The army of occupation withdrawn.

General misery throughout France owing to bad harvests.

1820. Assassination of the DUKE OF BERRI, younger son of the Count of Artois, brother of the King, followed by a violent royalist reaction. Richelieu recalled to office. Retired 1821. The "ULTRAS" in power till 1830.

1821. DEATH OF NAPOLEON at St. Helena strengthened the monarchy.

1823. France authorised at the CONGRESS OF VERONA to restore Ferdinand VII to the throne of Spain. An army of 95,000 men, under the Bourbon flag, entered Madrid, captured Cadiz and restored Ferdinand. The French remained in Spain till 1827. Louis died, 1824.

1824-30. Charles X. Charles, Count of Artois, brother of Louis XVI and of Louis XVIII, 67 years old, the most notorious of the Émigrés and the leader of the "ultra-royalists." "I would sooner hew wood, than be a king like George IV of England." "A true Émigré and a submissive bigot." An intensified REACTIONARY POLICY adopted.

1825. An enormous indemnity of £40,000,000 voted to the Emigrés for the lands they had lost during the Revolution. A law against sacrilege passed, and amputation of the hand decreed for theft from a church. Charles openly favoured the monastic

orders. The abolition of trial by jury discussed.

1827. A rigorous press censorship established. The citizen army disbanded. Riots in Paris during the elections, which

returned a large majority against the ministry.

1830. Charles made POLIGNAC PRIME MINISTER. "The incarnation of the old régime." "The people will pay a milliard to the law, they will not pay a million to the ordinances of a minister" (*Journal des Débats*).

1830. EXPEDITION TO ALGERIA to divert attention from home affairs. The Dey of Algiers had insulted the French flag. Algiers was occupied and the conquest of Algeria, completed twenty years later, begun.

1830. [March.] THE CHAMBERS presented the King with an address that he was acting unconstitutionally, and Charles dissolved them. The elections went against the King.

[July 25.] The Four Ordinances issued by Charles.

(i) Suspending the liberty of the Press. No newspaper or journal to be published without permission of the Ministry.

(ii) Dissolving the newly elected parliament.

- (iii) Restricting the franchise to those who paid a land-tax, thus excluding merchants and manufacturers and most professional men.
- (iv) Summoning a new parliament to be elected on the new franchise.

The July Revolution. "The Three Glorious Days."

[July 26.] The Paris newspapers declared that "since the Government has violated the law, we are under no obligation to obey it."

[July 27.] Barricades erected in the streets of Paris.

[July 29.] The entire city in the hands of the revolutionaries.

When too late Charles withdrew the Ordinances. He had become impossible, and a Republic was out of the question because of the certainty of the opposition of the European states. Charles abdicated in favour of his grandson the so-called Henry V.

1830-48. Louis Philippe. "The Bourgeois King."

Fifty-seven years of age. The son of Philippe Egalité, executed in 1793. Louis Philippe had fought for the Republic at Valmy and Jemmappes, and had been in exile in America and England (1793–1815). Elected Lieutenant-General of the realm, he convoked the Chamber of Deputies [August 3] and announced the abdication of Charles X.

[August 7.] The Chambers proclaimed him "King of the French by the grace of God and the will of the people." The "TRICOLOUR" replaced the "white" flag of the Bourbons.

The New Constitution deprived the King of the power to suspend the law, proclaimed the freedom of the Press and made ministers responsible to the Chambers. The European Powers gave Louis Philippe a grudging recognition on his promise to uphold all the international obligations of the late King.

The King's Difficulties. Louis Philippe was the King of a class throughout his reign. The government was in the hands of bankers, speculators, manufacturers, and merchants or the wealthy tax-payers. Eighteen years of political stagnation. The King had to keep peace in Europe and conciliate his opponents in France. French public opinion demanded a vigorous foreign policy. The chief strength of the "JULY MONARCHY" lay in the jealousies and rivalries of ITS OPPONENTS:—

- (i) The Legitimists, few in numbers, found their chief supporters among the clergy and the nobles, and regarded Charles X's grandson as Henry V.
- (ii) The Republicans, a small but increasing party forming numerous secret societies, the most important being "The Society of the Rights of Man."
- (iii) The Bonapartists, the old Imperialists, were at first unimportant, but grew with the development of "The Napoleonic Legend."
- 1832. A statue of Napoleon was placed on the Vendôme column.
- 1840. Napoleon's body brought from St. Helena and re-interred at Paris with great ceremony.

Louis Napoleon's book on "Napoleonic Ideas" represented Napoleon as a friend of the Revolution, compelled to wage wars by the implacable hatred of the enemies of France, and overthrown by a league of tyrants.

The Charter of 1814 reissued in a more democratic form, declaring all forms of religion equal before the law; the extension of trial by jury to all political crimes; the lowering of the franchise qualification from 300 francs of direct taxes to 200; the abolition of hereditary peerages.

French Intervention in Belgium. The French July Revolution inspired the revolution in Belgium in 1830 (see page 119).

1831. The Belgian crown was offered to the second son of Louis Philippe, and refused owing to the opposition of the European states. The crown was accepted by Prince Leopold of Coburg, who in 1832 married Louis Philippe's eldest daughter. William of Orange, King of Holland, invaded Belgium, and a French army in support of Belgium occupied Antwerp, whilst an English fleet blockaded the Dutch coast. William was compelled to yield.

Growth of Socialism. During the reign of Louis Philippe the INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION added a new problem for the government. The replacement of hand labour by machinery was accompanied by unemployment and starvation wages, especially in the silk industry (in 1831 and 1834 the Government employed troops to suppress riots in Lyons). Communism and secret societies made rapid progress among the workers, and an agitation against private property began.

1832. A workers' manifesto declared that "our object is the equal division of the burdens and benefits of society, the complete establishment of the reign of equality." The war against capitalists

took the "RED FLAG" as its symbol.

1839. Louis Blanc, "the apostle of socialism in France," published his most famous book, "The Organisation of Labour," proclaiming "the right to work" and the duty of the State to establish "NATIONAL WORKSHOPS." Growing economic distress won many recruits to the movement.

1846. Bad harvests followed by great distress.

Reactionary Policy of the Government. [1835]. An attack on the King's life was followed by REPRESSIVE MEASURES.

The liberty of the Press restricted. It was made a crime to

attack the institution of private property, or the established government, or to incite the people to revolt. The penalties against high treason increased. [1839.] Strong measures taken against the Socialists.

1840-8. Guizot, head of the Government. A thorough reactionary. He declared that he did not wish "to see the throne an empty arm-chair" and that "there were not more than one hundred thousand Frenchmen capable of voting with sound judgment and independence." He manipulated the elections by bribery and the exercise of Court influence. A vigorous repression of socialist and republican propaganda characterised the period.

The Anglo-French Friendship. 1843. Queen Victoria and the Prince Consort visited France.

1845. Louis Philippe visited England, and an expedition of English and French ships sailed to Madagascar. "THE CORDIAL UNDERSTANDING" between England and France was very popular in France, and its destruction in 1846 was one of the causes of the overthrow of the "July Monarchy."

1846. The Spanish Marriages. The Queen-Regent of Spain wished to marry the young Queen Isabella and her sister to French princes. England objected to a revival of the old "FAMILY COMPACT," but finally consented to the marriage of the Queen to one of the Bourbon descendants of Philip V and the marriage of her sister to Louis Philippe's second son after the birth of an heir to the Spanish throne. Louis Philippe gave England the necessary assurances and then had the marriages celebrated on the same day. England expressed her anger, and the effect in France was ruinous.

1848. The February Revolution.

The Government manipulation of the elections created an agitation for the reform of the electoral system and the Socialists and Republicans demanded universal suffrage.

1847. Reform Banquets organised, where speeches were made and toasts drunk to "reform."

1848. [February.] The Government refused any reform and prohibited the holding of a monster reform banquet in Paris. The promoters cancelled the meeting, but a large crowd assembled and caused a riot. The National Guard refused to fire, and Louis Philippe in alarm dismissed Guizot [February 22]. On the evening of the next day a mob attacked the Foreign Office, Guizot's official

residence; several were killed, and the Republicans roused Paris with cries of "Vive la République" and "À bas la royauté."

[February 24.] ABDICATION OF LOUIS PHILIPPE. The Chambers proclaimed Louis Philippe's grandson, the Count of Paris, King, but the republican deputies established a PROVISIONAL GOVERNMENT at the Hôtel de Ville and proclaimed THE REPUBLIC. A National Convention elected by universal suffrage was to meet on March 5. Louis Philippe fled to England and died in 1850.

The Provisional Government. On the motion of Louis Blanc NATIONAL WORKSHOPS were established and the right to form Trade Unions conceded.

[March 1.] The Minister of Public Works, an enemy of Louis Blanc and of the Socialists, merely organised the workers into gangs and set them digging ditches at a uniform wage of two francs a day. In April 100,000 men were so employed. The Socialists were defeated in the elections.

[May 4.] Meeting of the NATIONAL ASSEMBLY, with the moderates

in power. The National Workshops closed.

[June 23, 24, 25.] Heavy bloodshed in street-fighting in Paris. "The June days." The victory of the National Guards left bitter memories. About 4,000 Republicans and Socialists deported without trial, and thirty-two newspapers suppressed.

[November.] Proclamation of the New Constitution.

(i) A President of the Republic to be elected for four years by universal suffrage, and to be the head of the army and of the Ministry.

(ii) A Legislature to consist of a single Chamber of 750 deputies, elected for four years by universal manhood suffrage.

[December.] Louis Napoleon, nephew of the Emperor, elected first president by 5,400,000 votes against 1,770,000 cast for his two opponents.

CHAPTER VII

GERMANY. 1815-49

THE Vienna Congress had made no attempt to revive the Holy Roman Empire. Metternich desired to maintain a weak and divided Germany in which Austrian influence could have full scope. The small states, fearful of Prussia, preferred their independence to unity, and supported Austria. PRUSSIA herself disunited; there was no Prussian nation.

The New Germanic Constitution.

Germany to contain thirty-nine sovereign states. The states to be united in a Confederation or "Bund," all the thirty-nine members possessing equal rights. A Federal Diet of representatives of all the states to meet at Frankfort-on-Main under the presidency of Austria. The Diet had slight powers and could not interfere in the internal affairs of the German states. The delegates were appointed by the rulers of the states and could only vote according to the instructions received from their sovereigns. A unanimous vote was necessary to change "fundamental laws, organic institutions, individual rights, or matters of religion." The famous ARTICLE XIII stated that assemblies or estates (parliaments) were to be established in all the states. In most states this article was disregarded and was a constant source of dispute between the sovereign and his subjects.

The Reactionary Policy of the German Princes. The liberals of Germany, as in all other European states, demanded popularly elected parliaments, freedom of speech, the right of public meeting, freedom of the Press, trial by jury for political and criminal offences, parliamentary control of taxation, and the responsibility of ministers to parliament.

1815. Formation of Bürschenschaften or STUDENTS' ASSOCIATIONS in the Universities which were the strongholds of

liberalism. "The Universities became the centres of political agitation."

- **1816.** The Grand Duke of Weimar, the friend of Goethe and Schiller, granted a Constitution which became a model for all German liberals and was copied in Hanover and other German states.
- 1817. The Bürschenschaft of Jena University in Weimar organised a festival to celebrate the anniversary of the battle of Leipzig and the tercentenary of the Reformation. Students and professors met for sermons, prayers, and a dinner to the Grand Duke, and ended the festivities with a bonfire, in which were cast symbols of the reactionaries, "A Code of Police Law" by a Prussian Minister of Police, a Uhlan's stays, a soldier's pigtail, and a corporal's cane. The despotic princes of Germany were alarmed, and Metternich urged the extirpation of "the spirit of Jacobinism." Frederick William, King of Prussia, disbanded all clubs in Prussian universities as "the workshops of Jacobin doctrines." Metternich's influence was supreme at the congress of Aix-la-Chapelle (1818).
- 1818. The King of Bavaria granted a constitution, establishing a parliament, and the rulers of Baden, Würtemberg, and Hesse did the same during the next two years.
- 1819. Assassination of KOTZEBUE, a reactionary journalist, believed to have influenced the Czar to desert his liberal policy, by a German student, Sand, whom his fellow students hailed as "a second Brutus." Metternich summoned a conference of representatives of all the German states at Carlsbad.

The Carlsbad Decrees.

Adopted by the Diet at Frankfort.

- (i) The Freedom of the Press abolished. No newspaper, magazine, or pamphlet was to be published without the consent of a government official.
- (ii) The Universities to be placed under government supervision by the appointment of "curators to supervise professors and students."
- (iii) The Students' Associations to be dissolved and all political agitation suppressed.
- (iv) A commission to be appointed to investigate revolutionary conspiracies in Germany.
- 1820. "The Final Act" empowered the larger states to compel the smaller ones to suppress all liberal movements.

Revolutionary Movements. 1830-49.

1830. Influence of events in Paris (p. 41). Germany less affected than other parts of Europe. Risings in Brunswick, Saxony, Hesse, and Hanover, the rulers of Hesse-Cassel and Brunswick being deposed, and constitutional governments being established in Saxony, Hanover, and Hesse-Cassel.

1832. The Germanic Diet confirmed the Carlsbad Decrees. The Press and the Universities placed under supervision, and popular

assemblies prohibited.

1833. After riots at Frankfort the Diet adopted harsh measures

against the Press and the Universities.

1837. Hanover separated from England owing to the operation of the Salic Law. The Constitution of 1833 withdrawn and all free institutions abolished.

1840. Accession of Frederick William IV of Prussia. He had little sympathy with liberalism, and looked to Austria as the leader of Germany. The Prussian liberals became increasingly active and demanded a Constitution, which was refused. "I will never endure that a sheet of paper shall come between me and God in heaven to regulate our relations by paragraphs instead of by the ancient loyalty between King and subject."

1840-8. The reactionaries in the ascendant in nearly every

German state.

1848. Influence of the French Revolution. The difficulties of Austria deprived the German states of her support, and the liberals of Germany were ready with a programme of reforms. On the arrival of the news of the "February Revolution" in Paris, they demanded a GERMAN NATIONAL PARLIAMENT, elected on a wide suffrage, and the establishment of a NATIONAL CONSTITUTION providing for a President or Prime Minister, a Senate representing the states, and a popularly elected Chamber with control over all matters affecting the Germanic Confederation. Würtemberg, Saxony, and Baden agreed; Bavaria refused, and Prussia did nothing. The arrival of the news of the rising in Vienna and the flight of Metternich was followed by riots in Berlin.

[March.] A deputation asked Frederick William to call an Assembly and on his refusal fierce fighting occurred round the royal palace at Potsdam. The King accepted the liberal national programme, and wearing the colours of the old Holy Roman Empire, a red black and gold sash, rode in procession at the head of the

liberals through the streets of Berlin amidst scenes of great enthusiasm. The King of Bavaria abdicated, and liberal Constitutions were granted in Bavaria, Saxony, and Hanover.

[May.] The German National Parliament. Met at Frankfort and consisted of 586 representatives elected by universal suffrage. "Several hundred German professors and lawyers utterly unversed in politics." They spent months debating "the fundamental rights of the German people," while the reactionaries re-established their power in Austria, Hungary, Bohemia, and Italy. After five months they began a discussion on the proposed Constitution and in October passed a resolution cutting the Hapsburg domains into two parts by incorporating the German provinces of Austria in the new Germany. Austria announced her opposition, and Frederick William sided with the reactionaries. The Constituent assembly, which had met in Berlin [May], had insulted the Prussian army, and Frederick William dispersed the Assembly by troops.

1849. [March 28]. The Frankfort parliament elected Frederick William Emperor of the new Germany, [April 21.] Frederick William refused the Imperial dignity and rejected the new Constitution. "I refuse to pick up a Crown out of the mire." The moderate deputies left Frankfort in despair and the remainder were dispersed by troops. Revolutionary outbreaks quelled.

The Prussian Zollverein or Customs-Union.

The division of Germany into independent states ruined German trade, as every state had its own custom duties.

1818. Prussia established Free Trade within the Kingdom, and a greatly increased trade resulted. Heavy duties were imposed on goods passing through Prussian territory, and as Prussia commanded many of the great trade routes of Germany, the other states protested.

1819. A Merchants' Association complained to the Diet of the Confederation, that from Hamburg to Austria or from Berlin to Switzerland "one had to cross ten states, study ten different custom tariffs, and pay ten custom duties." Prussia invited all German states to join a union, which should enjoy Free Trade within its boundaries.

1834. [January.] A Zollverein formed. Seventeen states, with a combined population of twenty-three millions, agreed to

establish internal Free Trade with a common tariff frontier. Austria refused to join, and Prussia became the head of a union which included Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, Hesse-Cassel, Würtemberg, and Thuringia.

1835-6. Baden, Nassau, and the Free-City of Frankfort joined, and the Union soon included all central and southern Germany. Hanover headed a rival union of the northern states, which later joined the Prussian Union. "It was the happy idea of the Zollverein that made the unity of Germany under Prussian leadership inevitable." "THE TARIFF UNION BECAME THE BASIS OF THE FUTURE EMPIRE."

CHAPTER VIII

AUSTRIA. 1815-49

Francis I (1806-35) was a typical reactionary. "I have no need of learned men. I want faithful subjects. Be such, that is your duty."

Ferdinand I (1835-48) was an epileptic and METTERNICH was

supreme in the Council of Regency.

The Hapsburgs ruled "A DOZEN NATIONALITIES" divided by racial jealousies and national aspirations; the most numerous were Germans, Magyars, Italians, Czechs, and Poles.

The Magyars of Hungary and the Czechs of Bohemia had never forgotten their former independence, and the Italians hated the Austrians. The Government was centred in Vienna and was oppressive and corrupt. All liberal ideas were stifled, newspapers, books, theatres, and teachers being under close supervision. The nobles retained their old feudal privileges, exemption from taxation and the possession of a monopoly of all important state offices. METTERNICH crushed all opposition by his "spies and bayonets."

Hungary. The Magyars had settled in Hungary in the late ninth and early tenth centuries and established an independent state.

[1526.] The Magyars defeated by the Turks at Mohaes, invited Ferdinand of Austria to be their King.

They cherished their independence and their own nationality and customs, always refusing to recognise the Emperor till he had been crowned with the crown of St. Stephen. In 1740 they supported Maria Theresa, but Joseph II had aroused their opposition by his attempts to absorb Hungary in the Austrian administrative system. Leopold II was forced to promise a meeting of the Hungarian Diet every three years, and to concede it control of the finances, of the levying of troops, and of legislation.

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1825. Francis II, after refusing to do so for thirteen years, was compelled to summon the Diet owing to the Magyar opposition to taxation and the raising of troops.

Louis Kossuth (1802-94). The leader of the Magyar national movement. A brilliant orator and journalist of advanced liberal views, who had been imprisoned by Metternich [1836-40] for circulating reform speeches.

1847. Programme of Reforms demanded the extension of the suffrage, trial by jury, taxation of the nobles, equal rights and equal privileges for all, the right of public meeting, and the revision of the barbarous criminal code.

The Revolution of 1848.

The arrival of the news of the Paris Revolution was followed by risings in all parts of the Hapsburg dominions.

(a) Austria. Riots in Vienna, where the Liberals demanded representative government, liberty of the Press, and the right of public meeting.

The Government was unprepared and was forced to grant a NATIONAL ASSEMBLY, elected by universal suffrage, to draw up a Constitution. METTERNICH escaped to England, and the Emperor left Vienna. The reformers abolished all feudal dues and the privileges of the nobles. Windischgrätz bombarded the city into submission, martial law was proclaimed and the liberal leaders executed. Ferdinand's promises to the reformers were evaded by his abdication and the accession of his nephew francis joseph [1848–1916]. The victory of the reactionaries was complete.

1851. Metternich returned, but never again resumed office, dying in retirement in 1859.

(b) Hungary. 1848. [March 3.] Kossuth demanded a National Government and a Ministry responsible to the people, "to replace the bad cement of bayonets and official oppression by the firm mortar of a free Constitution."

[March 14.] A mass meeting in revolutionary Pesth adopted the "twelve points" of the liberal Constitution, the chief being a responsible Ministry, freedom of the Press, trial by jury, and a national system of education.

A "Committee of Public Safety" was appointed and the Austrian Covernment forced to concede all demands. Hungary to be an

independent state, acknowledging the Emperor as king. The victories of Windischgrätz, and Radetzki, and the abdication of the Emperor Ferdinand prepared the way for an attack on Hungary.

1849. [January.] The Austrians occupied Pesth, but the severities of Windischgrätz provoked a new rising in which GÖRGEI

drove the Austrians out of Hungary.

[April 14.] The Hungarian National Assembly published a DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE, and decreed that the House of Hapsburg should be excluded from the throne for ever. Kossuth was elected first president of the Hungarian Republic. Francis Joseph appealed to the Czar, and Nicholas sent 200,000 Russian troops into Hungary. Kossuth elected DICTATOR.

[August 14.] Görgei was defeated by the Russians at Vilagos and surrendered with all his army. Kossuth fled to Turkey, and in 1851 reached England. The leaders who remained were executed, and the bloodthirsty general, Haynau, "General Hyaena," conducted

a "reign of terror" in Hungary for ten years.

(c) Bohemia. A similar national movement. The old Diet still survived at Prague and fostered the revival of the old Czech language. On the receipt of the news of the Paris Revolution a mass meeting of "Young Czechs" demanded a national liberal Constitution, a responsible Ministry, and the recognition of the Czech language. These reforms were granted at Vienna, and the independence of Bohemia confirmed.

[June.] Rioting in Prague gave WINDISCHGRÄTZ, "the incarnation of strait-laced Austrian militarism," an excuse for bombarding Prague into submission. He assumed the rôle of military dictator and stamped out the revolt.

The Milanese and Venetia. (See Chapter IX.)

CHAPTER IX

ITALY. 1815-49

"Italy is but a geographical expression."
(METTERNICH in 1847.)

Reaction in Italy.

Piedmont. Victor Emmanuel I on returning to Piedmont in 1814 abolished every reform'since his flight to Sardinia and restored the old feudal privileges of the nobles. Religious freedom was abolished and the clergy received their former property and estates. A Press censorship was established and the Universities placed under supervision.

The Papal States. The Government restored to the ecc'esiastics and French reforms abolished. The Inquisition and 2,000 monasteries re-established.

The Milanese and Venetia. The administration in the hands of Germans, who extorted heavy taxes and custom dues. *

Naples. French reforms abolished. The Government largely in the hands of the elergy. Ferdinand the worst despot in the Peninsula.

The Risorgimento. 1815-70.

Napoleon had abolished the last vestiges of feudalism, established political equality and an efficient administrative system. His creation of "a Kingdom of Italy" had fired the imagination of Italian patriots. After 1815 Austria was supreme in Italy and the whole Peninsula, except Piedmont, was under foreign rule.

1815-30. The Carbonari flourished. A secret society to secure constitutional liberty and the expulsion of the foreigner.

1820. A revolt in Naples, stimulated by the Spanish rising (see Chapter XXII), compelled Ferdinand I to grant a Constitution.

1821. After the congresses of Troppau and Laibach (see Appendix E) the Austrians restored Ferdinand to absolute power.

1821. A military revolt in Piedmont demanded the Spanish Constitution and procured the abdication of Victor Emmanuel. Austria supported Charles Felix, the new King, and the revolt was suppressed.

1830. Austria easily suppressed isolated revolts in the Papal

States, Modena, and Parma.

Mazzini (1805-72). Born at Genoa. Dreamed of a revival of the old Roman Republic. He had no confidence in princes and foreign aid. At the age of twenty-two he joined the Carbonari and was imprisoned for six months and later driven into exile to Geneva, Marseilles, and London, where he finally settled.

1831. He founded the YOUNG ITALY SOCIETY, whose ideal was "Liberty, Equality, Humanity: one God, one sovereign, one law, the law of God." Mazzini's writings made him "the

prophet of Italian nationality."

Garibaldi (1807–82). Born at Nice, he came under the influence of Mazzini at Marseilles. After participating with him in a revolt against the King of Piedmont he escaped to South America [1836–48], where he became a famous guerilla leader. His two chief passions were his love of Italy and his sympathy with the oppressed.

The Rising of 1848-9.

1846. The Accession of Pius IX, an anti-Austrian and liberal-minded Pope, welcomed by all Italian patriots. CHARLES ALBERT, King of Piedmont since 1831, a moderate and conservative reformer. His hatred of Austria made him a leader of Italian liberalism.

1848. [January.] A rising in NAPLES forced FERDINAND II to grant a Constitution.

[March.] CHARLES ALBERT granted a Constitution to PIEDMONT, the model for the Constitution of the Italy of to-day. The arrival of the news of the flight of Metternich from Vienna roused Italy, and a popular rising at Milan drove Radetzki, the Austrian commander, out of the city with a loss of 5,000 killed and wounded after a "Five Days Revolution." PIEDMONT DECLARED WAR on Austria and every state in Italy sent volunteers to fight against "the hated white-coats." THE POPE blessed the standards of

"the National Army." After a bloodless revolution manin proclaimed the Republic of St. Mark at Venice, and Radetzki awaited reinforcements behind the fortresses of the Quadrilateral. Pius declared that war with Austria, the chief Catholic State of Europe, was "wholly abhorrent to his soul," and Ferdinand of Naples recalled his troops and revoked the new Constitution. The Piedmontese army was defeated at Custozza [July], and Charles Albert concluded an armistice.

1849. [February.] The Roman Republic. Pius fled from Rome after popular risings following the battle of Custozza, and a republic was proclaimed, with MAZZINI as head of a TRIUMVIRATE. Pius invited Austria, Naples, Spain, and France to help him. GARIBALDI landed in Italy and joined Mazzini. THE TUSCAN REPUBLIC was proclaimed at Florence.

1849. [March.] RENEWAL OF THE WAR. Radetzki reinforced, utterly defeated the Piedmontese army at NOVARA. The Piedmontese generals refused to continue the war, and Charles Albert abdicated in favour of his son VICTOR EMMANUEL and went into exile.

[June 3-30.] The "Defence of the Roman Republic." NAPOLEON had sent a French army under Oudinot to restore the Pope. Garibaldi acted with unsurpassed heroism. One of the great episodes in Italian history. His retreat [June 30—September 2]. He had become "the hero of Italy" and "The Captain of the People." Escaped by sea to Piedmont, and reached America by way of Liverpool in 1850.

Mazzini escaped to Switzerland and thence to England.

Venice capitulated, and Austria restored the despots. Ferdinand abolished all reforms at Naples and instituted a fierce persecution. Tuscany restored her Grand Duke, and Austrian rule was re-established in north Italy, but the Italian risings had "MADE HISTORY." Charles Albert's self-sacrifice made him a hero of Italian liberation, and the royal house of Piedmont the only possible leader of the Italian nation against Austria. "Italy has found a national flag" (Cavour).

CHAPTER X

THE EASTERN QUESTION AND THE WAR OF GREEK INDEPENDENCE

The Eastern Question. The problem of the Near East was one of the most complicated international difficulties of the nine. teenth century. The presence of a non-European and non-Christian state on European soil. The international importance of Constantinople. "The most important strategic position in Europe." Russian designs on Constantinople, and the transference of the Russian Black Sea fleet to the Eastern Mediterranean, with its effect on England's position in Egypt and India.

The Turk had conquered the Balkan Peninsula in the fifteenth century.

1453. Capture of Constantinople.

1571. THE BATTLE OF LEPANTO set limits to Turkey's naval power in the Mediterranean.

1683. Defeat of the Turks before Vienna by John Sobieski, King of Poland, limited her expansion westwards by land.

1699. Western Hungary freed from Turkish rule.

1774. Catherine II of Russia annexed the Crimea and the

region round the Sea of Azov.
1812. Alexander I of Russia conquered Bessarabia and reached the Pruth. The Turkish provinces of Roumania, Servia, Bulgaria, and Bosnia began to look to Russia for help against the Turk.

The Greek War of Independence.

The Greeks conquered about 1460, but retained their religion, civil laws, magistrates, and nationality. In the mountainous interior brigandage preserved the old fighting instincts, and on the seas permission to trade created a large mercantile marine. In 1821 the Greeks possessed a large fleet of well-armed trading vessels. Only during periods of religious excitement was the rule of the Turk really oppressive. The Turk had failed "EITHER TO CON-CILIATE OR TO CRUSH."

1814. The Hetairia Philike or the Association of Friends founded at Odessa. The beginning of an agitation for the liberation of Greece. The Greeks found supporters among the educated classes of Europe, and looked to Russia as the head of the Orthodox Greek Church for aid. The leadership of the revolt planned for 1820 offered to CAPODISTRIAS, a Greek and the Czar's minister. Alexander influenced by Metternich forbad Capodistrias to leave Russia, and PRINCE HYPSILANTI, a Greek noble of Constantinople and a general in the Russian army, took his place. The Greeks seized the opportunity afforded by the revolt of Ali, Pasha of Janina.

1821. [March.] Hypsilanti crossed from Russia into Moldavia. Metternich prevailed upon Alexander to disavow the revolt as "beyond the pale of civilisation," and the rising was crushed

and the leaders driven to seek safety in Austria [June].

1821. A Rising in the Morea, provoked by agents of the Hetairia Philike, broke out immediately after the failure of the northern revolt. The whole Greek population flew to arms, and within six weeks 20,000 Turks had been massacred. The revolt spread into Northern Greece, and the Sultan executed the Patriarch of the Greek Church at Constantinople on Easter Eve, and established a reign of terror in Constantinople, Asia Minor, and Macedonia. A war of "barbarian against barbarian." The Russian ambassador withdrawn from Constantinople and an agitation for a crusade against the Turk begun in Russia.

1822. [January 27.] Proclamation of the Independence of Greece. "As descendants of the wise and noble peoples of Hellas we cannot longer suffer without cowardice and self-contempt the

cruel yoke of the Turk."

[April.] The Massacre at Chios. 23,000 were killed, and 40,000 sold into slavery out of a prosperous and peaceful population of 90,000. The conscience of Europe was aroused and volunteers, munitions, and money poured into Greece.

[August 12.] Death of Castlereagh. [September.] CANNING became Foreign Secretary.

1823. [March 25.] England recognised the Greek flag. It was "impossible to treat as pirates a population of one million Greeks." The war party in Russia revived.

1824. [March.] Russian and Austrian offer of mediation refused by Turkey.

1825. Intervention of Mehemet Ali of Egypt. Mehemet

Ali was an Albanian, who had made himself ruler of Egypt. He possessed an excellent army and fleet and was offered by the Sultan Crete and the pashalik of Syria for his assistance.

[February 24.] His son ibrahim landed in the Morea with 4,000 infantry and 500 cavalry, accompanied by a powerful Egyptian fleet. Before the end of the year the Greeks in the Morea were completely conquered.

[December 1.] Accession of NICHOLAS I, "the incarnation of

the spirit of Holy Russia."

1826. [March 17.] Russian ULTIMATUM to Turkey demanding the withdrawal of the Turkish soldiers from the Principalities and the opening of negotiations. The Sultan, supported by Austria, refused.

[October 7.] The Sultan accepted Russia's demands regarding the Danubian Principalities.

1827. [April.] Canning became the English Prime Minister. (Died August.)

[July 6.] **Treaty of London.** England, France, and Russia declared for the independence of Greece on payment of tribute to Turkey and an immediate armistice to be enforced "by prudent means."

[August 11.] The French and English admirals at Smyrna received instructions to enforce an armistice. An Egyptian fleet of ninety-two vessels left Alexandria and joined the Turkish fleet in the bay of Navarino, on the west coast of Greece, and Ibrahim received orders to defy the allied fleet of English, French, and Russian warships under the command of Admiral Codrington.

[August 16.] A joint note demanding a cessation of hostilities

sent to Turkey.

[October 20.] Battle of Navarino. A threatening movement of the Turkish fleet and the continued destruction of Greek villages under the eyes of the allied fleet led to the destruction of the Ottoman fleet.

[December.] The English, French, and Russian ambassadors were withdrawn from Constantinople, and the Sultan proclaimed a HOLY WAR.

1828. [January.] The Duke of Wellington, averse from war with Turkey, became Prime Minister, and negotiations between the Allies occupied the spring.

[May 6.] The Russians crossed the Pruth and dictated terms of peace to Turkey.

1829. [September 14.] The Treaty of Adrianople.

[August 28.] Mehemet Ali evacuated the Morea after the Allies

had made a naval demonstration against Egypt.

By the treaty of Adrianople the Danubian Principalities became virtually independent, and Greece independent on the payment of an annual tribute. Wellington and Metternich preferred a fully independent Greece freed from Russian influence.

1830. [November.] Resignation of Wellington and accession of the Whig Ministry of Grey with Palmerston as Foreign Secretary.

1831. [September 26.] Greece received the frontier of Arta-Volo by agreement of the Powers.

1832. [May 7.] Treaty of London finally ratified the terms, and Greece became fully independent.

1833. [January 28.] OTTO, son of the King of Bavaria, became the first king of greece.

CHAPTER XI

NAPOLEON III AND THE CRIMEAN WAR

Louis Napoleon, the son of Napoleon I's brother, Louis Napoleon, King of Holland, born in Paris [1808] and exiled from France after 1814. He settled first in Augsburg and later on the shores of Lake Constance, where he associated with the Carbonari in Italy.

1832. On the death of Napoleon I's son, Louis Napoleon became the head of the family.

1836. An attempted rising at Strassburg led to his capture. The Government of Louis Philippe allowed him to go to America. He settled in Switzerland and finally in England.

1840. Napoleon landed at Boulogne, and was again captured. Imprisoned in the castle of Ham in Picardy for six years, finally escaping to England.

1848. Returned to France after the abdication of Louis Philippe, and elected a deputy to the New Legislative Assembly by five

departments, taking his seat for Paris [September].

[December 10.] President of the Republic. Elected by 5,400,000 votes against 1,400,000 cast for his chief opponent. "The man of destiny." One of his first acts was to bid for the support of the Catholics by sending a French army to Rome to restore the Pope.

1849. [April.] The Assembly was opposed to the destruction of the Roman Republic and was dissolved. A large majority in the New Assembly supported Napoleon, and the Republicans lost the command of the Assembly.

1849. [June.] The failure of a Radical rising strengthened Napoleon's position.

[October.] Napoleon dismissed the Ministry and put his own supporters in office.

1851. Napoleon proposed a REVISION OF THE CONSTITUTION that would enable him to be re-elected PRESIDENT, and was supported by eighty out of the eighty-six departments, but failed to secure the necessary two-thirds majority in the Chambers.

[December 1.] Napoleon's Coup d'État. He had won over the army in Paris, and during the night [December 1-2] the Republican leaders were arrested, seventy-eight of the most prominent deputies being imprisoned. In the morning, the anniversary of the battle of Austerlitz, proclamations were posted in Paris announcing the dissolution of the Chambers and the establishment of A NEW CONSTITUTION.

(i) A President to be elected for ten years.

(ii) A Ministry of State to be responsible to him alone.

(iii) A Council of State to prepare all new laws.

(iv) A Legislative Assembly elected by universal suffrage, and a Senate nominated by the President.

Paris was declared in a state of siege and all opposition crushed; 26,000 of Napoleon's opponents being arrested, 10,000 of whom were deported. The people approved of Napoleon's action by 7,500,000 votes to 640,000. NAPOLEON SUPREME IN FRANCE. Entered into residence at the Tuileries.

1852. [January 14.] The new Constitution formally proclaimed. [November.] The Senate with only one opposition vote declared for the re-establishment of the Empire.

[November 22–23.] The French approved by 7,800,000 votes against less than 250,000.

[December 2.] The Second Empire proclaimed, and Napoleon took the title of Napoleon III.

The Crimean War. 1854-6.

1740. Turkey had recognised the claims of France to protect French pilgrims, and the Frank (Roman Catholic) monks had been given certain rights in the Holy Places. During the French Revolution these rights had lapsed to the monks of the Greek Church supported by Russia.

1850. Napoleon demanded the restoration of French rights, and Nicholas refused. The Czar dreamed of a HOLY WAR against Turkey,

which he termed "the sick man of Europe."

1853. [April.] The English, French and Russian Ministers effected an agreement on the question of the Holy Places. Napoleon anxious for peace.

[May.] Nicholas demanded the right of protection over the Sultan's Greek Christian subjects. England supported the Sultan in his refusal, and the Czar's ambassador left Constantinople.

[June 22.] Russian troops occupied the Danubian Principalities. Austria protested and Prussia urged withdrawal, but Russia refused.

[October.] Turkey declared war on Russia, and the English and French fleets sailed through the Dardanelles.

[November.] The Russian Black Sea fleet destroyed eleven Turkish warships off Sinope.

1854. [January 3.] English and French fleets entered the Black Sea. The English people violently anti-Russian; the Court and the Government wished for peace.

[March 27.] ENGLAND AND FRANCE DECLARED WAR. Austria demanded the evacuation of the Danubian Principalities, and the Russians recrossed the Pruth.

The War in the Crimea. A prompt and vigorous attack on SEBASTOPOL, the base of the Russian Black Sea fleet, might have been successful, but time was given for TODLEBEN, the famous Russian engineer, to organise the defences.

[September 14.] English and French armies landed in the Crimea.

[September 20.] BATTLE OF THE ALMA. On being defeated Menshikov retreated into Sebastopol, reinforced the garrison, and retired into the interior of the Crimea. After further delays the Allies opened the bombardment of Sebastopol [October 17]. Menshikov advanced with a reinforced army and fought the battles of BALACLAVA [October 25] and INKERMAN [November 5].

[November 14.] A terrible storm wrecked twenty-one store ships, and the Allies were left to face the winter with totally inadequate supplies of clothing, medicines, and food. Terrible sufferings of the English troops. By the end of November nearly 8,000 English soldiers were in hospital, and between the beginning of November and the end of February nearly 9,000 men died of sickness, the daily average of patients being nearly 14,000. FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE and a band of nurses reached Constantinople [November 4]. Aberdeen resigned and PALMERSTON became Prime Minister [February 4, 1855].

1855. [January 26.] 15,000 Piedmontese troops under La Marmora joined the Allies. CAVOUR had determined to win the support of Napoleon.

[March 2.] Death of NICHOLAS and accession of ALEXANDER II. [June 18.] The English and French were repu'sed in a great assault on Sebastopol, and Lord Raglan died [June 28].

[August 16.] The Russians made a desperate but fruitless attack on the French and Piedmontese at Tchernaya.

[September 8.] The French captured the Malakoff Fort command-

ing the Russian defences.

[September 9.] Fall of Sebastopol. The Russians had destroyed all stores and ships and withdrawn northwards leaving "an empty shell."

[November 8.] The Russians captured the fortress of Kars,

and all parties were ready for peace.

[December.] Austria, after negotiations with France and England, sent an ultimatum to Russia, threatening war if Russia did not accept peace negotiations by January 16. Russia accepted and the CONFERENCE OF PARIS opened February 25, 1856. All the Powers except Prussia were represented, and Cavour sat for Piedmont. The treaty signed March 30.

Treaty of Paris.

- (i) Mutual restoration of all conquests by Turkey and Russia.
- (ii) The Black Sea declared neutral, open to all merchant ships, but closed to all warships.
 - (iii) The navigation of the Danube to be free.
- (iv) The independence and integrity of the Ottoman Empire guaranteed.
- (v) "The Sublime Porte" included within the scope of the international law of Europe.
- (vi) Moldavia and Wallachia to be independent under the suzerainty of the Sultan and the guarantee of the Powers.

The Declaration of Paris. Accepted by the Conference.

- (i) Privateering to be abolished.
- (ii) Neutral flags to cover enemy merchandise, except war material.
- (iii) Neutral property, except war material, not liable to capture under an enemy flag.
 - (iv) Blockades, to be recognised, must be effective.

CHAPTER XII

THE UNIFICATION OF ITALY. 1849-70

1849. The re-establishment of Austrian supremacy involved a huge army of occupation. "The hated white-coats." The Austrians extorted excessively heavy taxation from North Italy. Pius IX became more and more reactionary, and Ferdinand governed Naples and Sicily with sickening brutality.

1850. Gladstone in his "Letters to Lord Aberdeen" described the Government of Naples by an Italian epigram, as "THE NEGATION OF GOD ERECTED INTO A SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT," and aroused English and French public opinion.

1856. England and France withdrew their Ministers from Naples as a protest against Ferdinand's method of government.

Cavour (1810-61). "The Architect of Italian Unity." Born at Turin 1810. Dedicated his life to politics and was a great admirer of the political institutions of England. His lack of sympathy with Mazzini due mainly to his conviction that Italy could be freed from the foreigner only by the constitutional monarchy of Piedmont.

1852. Cavour Prime Minister of Piedmont. Abolished excessive tariffs and constructed roads and railways. Rapid expansion of trade and commerce. The army reorganised. Piedmont was a small kingdom of less than 500,000 people, but Cavour alone saw the necessity of securing the support of a powerful ally against Austria. "Whether we like it or not, our destinies depend upon France."

1855. In the face of much opposition he sent La Marmora to

the Crimea (see p. 163).

1856. He voiced the grievances of Italy at the Congress of Paris.
1858. [January.] An Italian, Orsini, failed in an attempt to assassinate Napoleon. On the eve of his execution Orsini urged Napoleon "to redress the wrongs of Italy."

[July 20.] Napoleon met Cavour secretly at PLOMBIÈRES in the

Vosges mountains.

The Compact of Plombières.

- (i) Austria to be attacked at the first favourable opportunity.
- (ii) Napoleon to aid Piedmont with 200,000 men.
- (iii) No peace to be made before Austria was expelled from Italy.
- (iv) A kingdom of Northern Italy, including Piedmont, Lombardy, Venetia, and the duchies of Parma and Modena, to be created.
- (v) Umbria and Tuscany to be united into a kingdom of Central Italy.
- (vi) Rome to remain to the Pope and be under French protection.
 - (vii) Naples to be left to work out its own salvation.
 - (viii) The four states of Italy to be united in a federation.
 - (ix) Savoy and Nice to be ceded to France.

The War with Austria. 1859

[January 1.] Speaking to the Austrian ambassador at Paris in public Napoleon "regretted that the relations between the two Empires were not so good as formerly."

[January 7.] Victor Emmanuel in opening the parliament at Turin declared that "we are not insensible to the cry of woe that reaches us from so many parts of Italy."

[January 18.] An offensive alliance signed between France and Piedmont. The Piedmontese Parliament voted a large sum of money "for special expenditure," and warlike preparations were commenced.

[April 23.] Austria demanded the disarmament of Piedmont on pain of invasion. Piedmont refused. "The die is cast, we have made history," exclaimed Cavour.

[April 29.] The Austrians invaded Piedmont and France Declared War.

[May 12.] Napoleon landed at Genoa, the French troops pouring into Piedmont across the Alps. The Austrians fell back on Milan.

[June 4.] Battle of Magenta. The French attack stubbornly resisted, but the Austrians driven into the town of Magenta, which they defended for ten hours. The next day they withdrew southwards leaving the road to Milan open. The Austrians lost 13,000

killed or wounded and 7,000 prisoners; the French 3,000 killed or wounded and 735 prisoners.

[June 7.] Napoleon and Victor Emmanuel entered Milan.

[June 15.] The whole Austrian army was across the Mincio.

[June 24.] Battle of Solferino. Lasted fifteen hours and ended in a hard-won victory for the French and Piedmontese. The Austrians lost 20,000 men, and the Allies 18,000 killed or wounded.

Parma and Modena declared for union with Piedmont and the revolution spread through Umbria, Romagna, and the Marches.

Prussia mobilised part of her army and offered mediation to Austria on condition that she surrendered her control of the Federal Diet. Austria refused, and Prussia, stationing troops on the Rhine, invited England and Russia to join in mediation. Palmerston and Lord John Russell refused. The French Catholics were restless at the prospective attack on the Papal territories, and Napoleon was alarmed at the attitude of Prussia and the prospect of a strong and united Italy.

[July 9.] The Armistice of Villafranca. Without consulting either Victor Emmanuel or Cavour, Napoleon met the Emperor Francis Joseph by night within the Austrian lines at Villafranca.

Lombardy to be ceded to Napoleon, who was to hand it to Piedmont. Tuscany and Modena to be restored to their dukes. Venetia to remain to Austria. The Romagna, the north-eastern part of the Papal States, to be restored to the Pope.

Cavour demanded the renewal of the war, but Victor Emmanuel saw the necessity of accepting "the infamous treaty." Cavour resigned.

The Central States refused to accept the settlement, and TUSCANY, MODENA, PARMA, and the ROMAGNA formed a military league. Napoleon forbad Austria to intervene, and Parma, Modena, and Tuscany declared for union with Piedmont.

1860. [January.] CAYOUR returned to office. The union of the Central States with Piedmont effected. Napoleon agreed to accept a plebiscite of the four states, on condition that Piedmont guaranteed the cession of Nice and Savoy to France.

[March.] The plebiscite resulted in an overwhelming vote in favour of union with Piedmont.

[April 2.] The first italian parliament met at Turin, and Savoy and Nice were declared part of France.

The Revolt in Sicily.

"They have stopped me making Italy by diplomacy from the North; I will make it by revolution from the South" (Cavour after Villafranca).

1859. [May 22.] Accession of Francis II on the death of Ferdinand. The military and clerical reactionaries established in power. The liberals looked to the North of Italy. All revolts

were crushed with great barbarity.

1860. A revolt was organised for the spring. It commenced near Messina in Sicily [April 4]. GARIBALDI had promised his aid, but before he could help the revolt was stamped out with great brutality. Garibaldi allowed to enrol recruits and collect arms. The authorities at Genoa connived at the departure of the Garibaldians, and the admiral of the Piedmontese fleet received secret instructions to ensure the safe passage of Garibaldi's ships.

[May 5.] "The Expedition of the Thousand." Left Genoa in two steamers and reached Marsala, in the west of Sicily [May 11], with 1,089 men, chiefly from North Italy. "The campaign is one of the most extraordinary feats of arms in history." Sicily was garrisoned by 24,000 Neapolitan troops, stationed at Palermo and supported by Neapolitan cruisers. Garibaldi assumed the Dictatorship of the island in the name of Victor Emmanuel.

[May 12.] The little army marched for Palermo.

[May 15.] Victory of Calatafimi. "Here we make Italy or die" (Garibaldi). The Sicilians greeted Garibaldi as a saviour, and Francis sent Lanza, an incompetent general of seventy-two years of age, to take command at Palermo, which was in a ferment. All the villages were in arms. Garibaldi marched by a circuitous route to Palermo.

[May 27-29.] Three days' desperate street-fighting in Palermo.

[May 30.] An armistice arranged.

[June 6.] Capitulation of Palermo. 20,000 Neapolitan troops evacuated the town and retired to Naples. Garibaldi had conquered Sicily in a month.

[July 20.] Battle of Milazzo cleared the way to the straits, which were crossed during the night [August 18-19].

[August 21.] Reggio occupied after street-fighting. Advance on Naples.

[September 6.] Francis II left Naples.

[September 7.] Garibaldi reached Naples by train almost unattended amidst scenes of tremendous enthusiasm. The Bourbon forces held up Garibaldi for two weeks at Capua before the Volturno.

[September 7.] Cavour ordered the Piedmontese army of 33,000 men to invade the Papal States, after he had agreed with Napoleon at Chambéry [August 28] to leave the city of Rome to the Pope. CIALDINI, "the Garibaldi of the regular army," destroyed the main Papal army at CASTELFIDARDO. In less than three weeks the States were conquered. Garibaldi had improved his position by a brilliant victory on the VOLTURNO [October 1–2].

[October 9.] The King and the whole army left Ancona for

Naples.

[October 26.] Victor Emmanuel and Garibaldi met at Teano. "I hail the first King of Italy." Garibaldi laid down his Dictatorship, and after riding with the King through the streets of Naples [November 9] retired to his farm at Caprera refusing all honours and rewards. Francis II held out in the fortress of Gaeta till February, 1861. Naples, Sicilly, Umbria, and the Marches voted for annexation to Piedmont by nearly two million votes against twelve thousand.

[March.] Victor Emmanuel proclaimed KING OF ITALY.

[June 6.] Death of Cavour. Worn out by his labours. "Italy as a nation is the legacy of Cavour."

1866. Venice United to Italy. Italy concluded an offensive and defensive alliance with Prussia against Austria and declared war on Austria two weeks before the battle of Königgrätz (see page 73). The Italians were defeated on land at CUSTOZZA and on sea at LISSA. Received Venetia at the treaty of Prague.

1870. Rome United to Italy. Garibaldi attacked Rome and was defeated at MENTANA by the French [1867].

1870. [September 20.] 60,000 Italian troops entered Rome after the withdrawal of the French garrison. The inhabitants voted by 130,000 against 1,500 for union with Italy.

1871. Rome declared THE CAPITAL OF ITALY. PIUS IX refused to recognise the Italian Government, and was allowed to retain his independence. "The prisoner of the Vatican."

CHAPTER XIII

THE AUSTRO-PRUSSIAN DUEL

- 1849-58. Reaction in Prussia. Frederick William IV's horror of revolution drove him into the arms of Austria. 1849-58. Prussia a negligible quantity in the affairs of Europe. The King governed with the aid of the nobility, and an effective police system checked all liberal tendencies. Thousands of German liberals emigrated in despair to America.
- 1858. Beginning of a New Era. Frederick William IV went mad, and his brother, William, became regent [1858]. Sixtyone years of age. Personally brave and honest, he had little sympathy with the aspirations or ideals of liberalism, and believed that the future of Germany was bound up in the leadership of Prussia, as a strong military state.

1858. Count von Moltke appointed as Chief of the Grand General Staff of the Prussian army. To his death in 1891 he was the foremost soldier in Germany.

The Reform of the Army.

The Prussian army was organised in 1859 as Scharnhorst had determined in 1814, and was based on the obligation of all male Prussians to serve. Three years to be spent with the colours, two years with the war reserve, seven years in the first and seven years in the second division of the militia. The number of men was as in 1814, and owing to the increase in the population 25,000 men annually escaped military service. WILLIAM proposed to increase the army by 20,000 men, to increase the term of service in the reserves from two to four years, and to enforce the conscription laws thoroughly.

1859. VON ROON MINISTER OF WAR. An organising genius. He made the Prussian army the finest in Europe. A large reserve of trained men gradually created.

1860. [January.] The Regent in opening Parliament outlined

the proposed army reforms, and after a fierce debate the bills of supply voted for fourteen months only.

1861. [January 1.] The new regiments established with a

solemn consecration of banners.

[January 2.] Accession of William I on the death of Frederick William IV.

1862. [August.] Parliament rejected the estimates for the increased army and the Ministers resigned. William contemplated resignation, when Roon suggested calling upon Bismarck.

Otto Karl von Bismarck (1815-98).

Bismarck was born in Prussian Saxony. Intended for the civil service he studied law.

1846. Entered public life as a member of the Diet of Prussian Saxonv.

1847. A member of the General Dict. Attracted attention by his outspoken championship of royal absolutism and aristocratic privileges.

1851-59. Prussian representative to the Diet at Frankfort.

1859-62. [Spring.] Prussian ambassador at St. Petersburg, where he formed that friendship with Russia that was afterwards so marked a feature of his foreign policy.

1862. [Spring-September.] Ambassador at Paris. Napoleon gave him the Cross of the Legion of Honour as a proof of his esteem.

[September 24.] William recalled him to Berlin and appointed him PRUSSIAN MINISTER OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS.

[September 30.] In a speech on the budget Bismarck said that "the unity of Germany will be realised not by speeches, not by votes of the majority in Parliament, but by blood and iron." Heartily supported Roon. Failing to secure a majority for the army supplies. Bismarck for three years collected the taxes and carried through the army reforms without Parliamentary sanction. Such liberty as the Press had previously enjoyed was abolished and members of Parliament were successfully prosecuted for their speeches against the Ministry. By the beginning of 1863 the army was ready.

1863. The Polish Rising gave Bismarck an opportunity of winning the alliance of Russia by sending three army corps to the Polish frontier to turn back fugitives.

[February.] A Russo-Prussian Alliance. Napoleon had lost the Czar's friendship by the sympathy of French Catholics and liberals for the Poles.

The Austro-Prussian War. 1866.

- 1863-65. The Schleswig-Holstein Question. 1523. Frederick, Duke of Schleswig and Holstein, had become King of Denmark.
- 1850. Holstein contained about 600,000 Germans (almost its entire population), and Schleswig 300,000 Germans and 150,000 Danes. Holstein was a member of the Germanic Confederation and a large majority in Schleswig desired inclusion in the Confederation.
- 1863. Accession of CHRISTIAN IX of Denmark. Prince Frederick of Augustenburg, descended through the male line, claimed the duchies, whilst Christian claimed them as part of the kingdom of Denmark. Prussia and Austria offered to recognise Christian if he declared the duchies separate from the kingdom, but Christian, whose daughter, Alexandra, had married the Prince of Wales [March 1863], refused.
- 1864. [February.] Austria and Prussia Declared War on Denmark. The war was a military promenade. Christian sued for peace, and in the Treaty of Vienna [October 30] surrendered all his claims to the duchies. Holstein was occupied by the troops of the Germanic Confederation and Schleswig by Prussian and Austrian troops.

[December.] Bismarck secured the withdrawal of the Federal troops, which were replaced by Prussians.

1865. [April.] Bismarck claimed nearly half the duchies for the Hohenzollerns. German sympathies with Austria. Bismarck accepted the CONVENTION OF GASTEIN. "We have papered over the cracks."

Isolation of Austria.

- 1865. [September.] Bismarck met Napoleon at BIARRITZ. Promise of French neutrality and discussion about "compensations" on the Rhine.
- 1866. [April.] A three months' offensive and defensive alliance between Prussia and Italy. Russia was friendly and England could be disregarded. (1858. The Prussian Crown Prince had married Queen Victoria's eldest daughter.)

The Seven Weeks' War. 1866.

[June.] Austria brought the question of Schleswig and Holstein before the Diet. Prussia occupied Holstein, and Austria moved a resolution mobilising the Federal troops. Prussia withdrew from the Diet.

[June 14.] Prussia Declared War. Austria supported by nearly all the other German states. The Austrian army unprepared. The Austrian plan was to invade Silesia; the Prussian to concentrate three armies, from the north, west, and Silesia respectively, on Bohemia and strike at Vienna. The details had been carefully prepared by Moltke.

[June 15.] The Prussians occupied Dresden, the Saxon army

retreating into Bohemia to join the Austrians.

[June 17.] Hanover occupied. (Her army surrendered June 28.)

[June 18.] Cassel occupied.

[June 17.] Benedek, the Austrian commander-in-chief, began his northward march. Moltke ordered the Prussian generals to prevent the union of the Austrian and Bavarian armies.

[June 23.] Prince Frederick Charles in command of the main Prussian army entered Bohemia, and being joined by the army of the Elbe on the 25th, advanced on the 26th. The Austrians foiled in their attempt to enter Silesia fell back before the advancing Prussians and halted on the 29th between the villages of Sadowa and Königgrätz. KING WILLIAM, MOLTKE, and BISMARCK

joined the main Prussian army.

[July 3.] Battle of Sadowa or Königgrätz. 220,000 Austrians and 221,000 Prussians. The Austrians occupied a strong position. and the battle was in doubt till the arrival of the Crown Prince gave Prussia one of the most decisive victories in history. Prussians lost altogether 10,000 men, whilst the Austrians lost 17,000 killed or wounded, 23,000 prisoners, and 174 guns. By the middle of July Benedek had been cut off from Vienna.

June 24.1 The Italians were decisively defeated at Custozza.

An Italian squadron in the Adriatic was defeated at LISSA.

The mediation of Napoleon, who had anticipated either a long war or an early victory for Austria, offered after Sadowa, and Bismarck faced with the possibility of an Austro-French alliance hurried on peace discussions.

[July 22.] Formal negotiations opened. Austria was in no condition to refuse the very moderate terms asked. The Magyars

of Hungary had refused assistance, and the Austrian treasury was empty.

The Treaty of Prague. [August 23.]

- (i) Austria withdrew from the Germanic Confederation and renounced all claims to Schleswig and Holstein.
- (ii) Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, and the city of Frankfort united to Prussia.
 - (iii) Venetia ceded to Italy.

The Prussian Parliament passed a Bill of Indemnity for the taxes which Bismarck had illegally collected for four years. The southern states of Germany made secret treaties of alliance with Prussia (made public in 1867 as a warning to Napoleon). Bismarck had won over the southern states by publishing Napoleon's demand for compensations on the left bank of the Rhine. Bayaria, Würtemberg, and Baden gave the King of Prussia the supreme command of their armies in time of war, and in 1867 joined the Prussian Zollverein.

The North German Confederation. 1867.

Prussia became the head of a new confederation, including all the twenty-two states north of the Main. The King of Prussia to be President. The states to send delegates to a Federal Council, the Bundesrath. A Parliament or Reichstag of popularly elected members. All laws and taxes to pass the Chambers. The Prussian Chancellor to preside over the Bundesrath. Military service to be organised on the Prussian system and made compulsory for all male citizens over seventeen years of age.

CHAPTER XIV

THE FRANCO-GERMAN WAR. 1870-71

1866-70. THE ANTECEDENTS OF THE WAR. France regarded Sadowa as a national defeat. Immediate introduction of military reforms. The French infantry armed with the "CHASSEPOT," a breech-loading rifle superior to the Prussian "needle-gun," and the "MITRAILLEUSE," a new machine-gun introduced. Napoleon opened negotiations with Austria and Italy. A vigorous Press campaign in France and Germany familiarised Europe with the idea of a Franco-German war. The Prussian General Staff prepared plans, kept up to date year by year.

1866. [August.] Napoleon demanded "compensations" for France on the left bank of the Rhine. Bismarck refused, and Napoleon opened negotiations with the King of Holland for the purchase of LUXEMBURG, a member of the Germanic Confederation.

Violent German agitation.

1867. Conference of London. The whole question of Luxemburg was settled.

(i) The Prussian garrisons to be withdrawn.

(ii) The fortifications to be demolished.

(iii) Luxemburg to remain under the King of Holland, and to be neutral territory under the guarantee of the Powers.

Napoleon and Mexico.

1861. The Mexican Congress suspended payment of all foreign creditors for two years, and England, France, and Spain sent a joint expedition. Mexico yielded. England and Spain withdrew, but Napoleon saw his opportunity of establishing French influence in Mexico (the United States was occupied in the Civil War, 1861–65). An army of 6,000 Frenchmen left in Mexico and a provisional Government established under French influence. With a guarantee of French support, the ARCHDUKE MAXIMILIAN, brother of the

Emperor of Austria, induced to accept an invitation of certain Mexicans to become EMPEROR OF MEXICO.

1864. Maximilian landed in Mexico, and found an empty

treasury, civil war, and chronic disorder.

1865. The sudden collapse of the Southern States of America. America demanded the unconditional withdrawal of the French troops. Napoleon submitted, but Maximilian refused to desert his supporters.

1867. [February.] The last of the French troops embarked, and in June Maximilian was captured, tried by court martial,

and shot. Napoleon's reputation suffered severely.

Napoleon and Italy.

Napoleon forfeited all claim to Italian gratitude by his acquisition of Savoy and Nice in 1860. He kept a French garrison in Rome to placate the French Catholics, and the Italians regarded Rome as the only possible capital of the Italian kingdom.

1867. Garibaldi with a body of volunteers invaded Papal territory. Defeated and wounded by French troops in the BATTLE OF MENTANA.

Napoleon and France.

After 1860 the prestige of France in Europe declined, and in France Napoleon's diplomatic action in Italy, Mexico, Germany, and Austria aroused growing resentment. The Republicans had neither forgotten nor forgiven "the coup d'état" of 1851. The Catholics were alienated by Napoleon's alliance with Piedmont and the Liberals by his support of the Pope. Heavy taxation necessitated by the public works undertaken by Napoleon and by the cost of the army and the Court. Paris largely rebuilt, great highroads and canals constructed, and waste lands drained. Large sums of public money spent on the improvement and construction of harbours. The Court was brilliant and extravagant. The Constitution deprived the French people of any real political power. After 1866 Napoleon suffered from the strange malady from which he died and became increasingly unfitted for the direction of affairs. The growing unpopularity of the Imperial régime and the growing weakness of the Government responsible for the announcement of LIBERAL REFORMS in 1867.

1868. The Republicans of Paris published a manifesto.

1869. The Government replied by granting revised Constitution on liberal lines.

 ${\bf 1870}.~[{\rm May}~8.]$ The Liberal Empire established by plebiseite.

Spain and the Hohenzollern Candidature.

1868. Revolution in Spain (see page 114).

1870. The Crown offered to PRINCE LEOPOLD OF HOHEN-ZOLLERN-SIGMARINGEN, a distant relative of the King of Prussia and closely related by marriage to Napoleon. After a first refusal he accepted, subject to the approval of the Spanish Cortes and of the King of Prussia.

[June 28.] William gave his assent.

[July 4.] The Crown formally offered to Leopold. Strong disapproval of France. GRAMONT, the French Foreign Minister, declared that "France will not tolerate the establishment of a Hohenzollern or any other Prussian prince on the throne of Spain."

[July 6.] He told the Chamber of Deputies that if Leopold did not withdraw "France will know how to do her duty without hesitation and without weakness." A violent anti-Prussian outburst in the Paris Press. Bismarck adopted the strictly "correct" attitude that the affair was the concern of Leopold. England, Austria, and Italy urged withdrawal.

[July 12.] Leopold withdrew his consent. The war party in France demanded guarantees from Prussia, and Gramont instructed Benedetti, the French ambassador at Berlin, to demand from King William that never again would be sanction the candidature of Leopold to the Spanish throne.

[July 13.] Benedetti's interview with William at EMS. William refused to give any guarantees. Benedetti sought a second interview and William sent him a message that the subject was closed. Bismarck informed of these events by William in the "EMS TELEGRAM." Bismarck was in the Chancellor's room at Berlin with Moltke and Roon when the telegram arrived. On Moltke's assurance that Prussia was fully prepared for war Bismarck sent an abbreviated form of the telegram to the Press. "This is the call to arms" (Moltke). (See Appendix F.)

[July 14.] The anniversary of the fall of the Bastille. The telegram was published in the Paris Press. Aroused the fierce

passions of the Paris mob.

[July 15.] The French reserves called up and the Government announced its intention "to take measures to safeguard the honour and interests of France." King William returned to Berlin and signed the order for the mobilisation of the army of the North German Confederation. France and Prussia rejected an English offer of mediation. The French Minister of War assured Napoleon that the army was ready "to the last button on the last gaiter," and the French Prime Minister accepted the war "with a light heart."

[July 19.] France formally declared war on Prussia.

The War, July 1870-February 1871.

Isolation of France. Bismarck published the proposed treaty of 1867 in the handwriting of Benedetti regarding the annexation of Luxemburg. ENGLAND at once demanded from Prussia and France guarantees of the neutrality of Belgium, and on receiving favourable replies declared her neutrality, as did AUSTRIA, RUSSIA, ITALY, and DENMARK. THE SOUTH GERMAN STATES supported Prussia.

France Unprepared. Napoleon too ill to direct operations with vigour. Many French regiments below their full strength and French fortresses inadequately equipped. The railways after the early days congested and disorganised. In Germany the details of organisation had been carefully perfected, and within eighteen days the German armies were at their appointed posts with complete equipment and transport.

The Rival Armies. The Germans placed 450,000 fully trained men in the field and possessed large reserves. France had 300,000 and few reserves. The French plan was to invade southern Germany, win the alliance of the South German States, and of Austria and Italy later. They had 130,000 men at metz and 80,000 at STRASSBURG to invade Germany, with a third army of 50,000 at CHÂLONS to act as a support. The Germans massed three armies on the Rhine. The first army of 85,000 men along the Saar. The Second army under the "Red Prince," Frederick Charles, stretched south-eastwards of the First ready to strike at Metz. The third army of 200,000 men under the Crown Prince lay along the Lauter to strike at the flank of an army invading Germany, or to invade France,

[August 2.] The War Opened.

[August 6.] The Third Army defeated Macmahon's army of 45,000 men at wörth. The French at Strassburg retreated towards Châlous. The First and Second Armies crossed the Saar and won the battle of SPICHEREN [August 6].

BAZAINE placed in supreme command of the French and sent to METZ with 170,000 men. He planned a withdrawal to Verdun to effect a union with MACMAHON, but the Germans were too quick for him. The three German armies co-operated in a sweeping movement on Metz, and after desperate fighting at VIONVILLE, MARS-LA-TOUR, and GRAVELOTTE [August 16–18] drove Bazaine with 170,000 men back into METZ.

MACMAHON, moving eastwards from Châlons to relieve Bazaine, pushed northwards by the Crown Prince with the Third Army, and trapped in SEDAN near the Belgian frontier.

[September 2.] Napoleon Surrendered at Sedan. The French army of 135,000 men ceased to exist. The Germans captured 50 generals, 5,000 officers, 83,000 men, 6,000 horses, and 558 cannon. The road to Paris was open.

[September 19.] The Germans reached Paris and organised the siege from Versailles, with 147,000 men and 622 guns.

The Downfall of the Empire.

The news of Sedan provoked a REVOLUTION at Paris.

[September 4.] The Third Republic, under Jules Favre as Minister of War, and Léon Gambetta as Minister of the Interior, established. The Empress escaped to England. A GOVERNMENT OF NATIONAL DEFENCE created. "We desire peace, but if the King of Prussia continues this unjust war, we will fight to the end. We will not yield an inch of French soil; not a stone of a French fortress." The Germans determined to secure Alsace and Lorraine, Strassburg and Metz. The French established the seat of government at Tours and Gambetta escaped from Paris in a balloon to become dictator. He raised and equipped four armies of 600,000 men altogether, and made 1,400 guns. The armies stationed at lille, le Mans, Bourges, and Besançon. The Germans engaged in the sieges of Paris, Metz, Strassburg, Belefort, and Verdun.

[September 6.] STRASSBURG surrendered.

[October 11.] ORLEANS occupied and a French army driven south.

[October 27.] Capitulation of Metz. BAZAINE tamely surrendered. 6,000 officers, 173,000 men, 1,340 guns, and an enormous quantity of stores fell to the Germans. 400,000 men freed to co-operate with the First Army on the Meuse and with the Second Army on the Loire. Bazaine's excuse for not fighting was that he could not trust his officers and that he wished to avoid useless slaughter. His enemies accused him of having betrayed the Republic. Gambetta ordered a levy of all men capable of bearing arms. The Germans had been driven from Orleans, but recaptured the town on the arrival of the Second Army from Metz and defeated an attempt to raise the siege of Paris.

[November 27.] The First Army captured amiens.

[December 6.] ROUEN captured. An attempt to relieve Paris from the north-east frustrated by the defeat of the French at St. QUENTIN [January 19].

[January 15-16.] BOURBAKI, ordered to raise the siege of Belfort, defeated and driven across the Swiss frontier, where 85,000 French laid down their arms.

[January 12.] The French army of the west defeated at LE MANS.

[January 21.] A final sortic from Paris easily repulsed. THIERS returned from his unsuccessful tour of the European capitals to ask for intervention.

[January 28.] Paris Capitulated. The winter had been unusually severe and the city was on the verge of starvation. The troops surrendered, and the guns were dismounted. A GENERAL ARMISTICE was signed the same day.

Losses During the War.

The Germans had lost 28,000 killed, and 101,000 wounded and disabled. The French lost 156,000 killed and 143,000 wounded and disabled. 720,000 had surrendered to the Germans or been interned in neutral countries.

[February 12.] A National Assembly, elected at Bordeaux by universal male suffrage. THIERS appointed "HEAD OF THE EXECUTIVE POWER OF THE FRENCH REPUBLIC." Thiers and Bismarck negotiated terms of peace at Versailles.

[February 26.] Preliminaries signed.

[May 10.] The Treaty of Frankfort. France to cede ALSACE, except BELFORT and EASTERN LORRAINE, including METZ and STRASSBURG, to pay an indemnity of five milliards of francs (£200,000,000) within three years, and to support an army of occupation in her eastern frontier towns till the indemnity was paid.

CHAPTER XV

THE BALKAN STATES TO 1878

1829. The Treaty of Adrianople opened a new chapter in the history of the Balkan States with the Sultan's recognition of the independence of Greece and the virtual independence of Moldavia and Wallachia (see p. 60).

The Balkan Peoples.

During the nineteenth century the Turks formed only a small proportion of the population of the Balkan Peninsula and were steadily diminishing in numbers. About the middle of the century they numbered about 2,003,000 as against 4,500,000 Greeks, 1,500,000 Albanians, and 10,000,000 Bulgars and kindred races in Bosnia, Serbia, and Bulgaria. South of the Danube there were 3,300,000 Mohammedans and 20,000,000 Greek Christians.

The Struggle for Independence. A Pan-Slav agitation followed the Crimean War. Russian agents at work throughout the Balkans. A revival of religious and racial hatred.

1861. Moldavia and Wallachia united to form ROUMANIA.

1866. CHARLES of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, a capable ruler under whom Roumania made steady progress, chosen prince.

[1881.] Became King. [1914.] Succeeded by his son FERDINAND.

- **1867.** The Turkish garrisons removed from the fortresses of Serbia.
- 1875. A revolt in Herzegovina, spread to Bosnia and Bulgaria. The European Powers demanded reforms by the Sultan, and the "YOUNG TURK" movement began as a protest against European dietation. Birth of PAN-ISLAMISM.
- 1876. [May.] A REVOLUTION organised by the Young Turks deposed and murdered the Sultan, and deposed his successor within three months.

[August.] Accession of Abdul-Hamid II (1876-1909). "The most capable Sultan of modern times." He made skilful use of the

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rivalries and jealousies of the European powers. English fears of Russia prevented European intervention during the early months of his reign. The presence of the English fleet in the Dardanelles

strengthened Turkey.

1876. [May.] The Bulgarian Atrocities horrified the conscience of Europe. Sixty-five villages in the upper valley of the Maritza were destroyed. In Batak 5,000 men, women, and children were butchered in cold blood after horrible outrages. DISRAELI, the English Prime Minister, dismissed the stories of outrage "as coffee-house babble," but GLADSTONE attacked the Eastern policy of the English Government, and demanded "the expulsion (FROM EUROPE) of the unspeakable Turk, bag and baggage."

[July.] SERBIA and MONTENEGRO declared war on Turkey. England offered mediation and protested against the number of

Russian volunteers in the ranks of the insurgents.

[October.] Serbia defeated and Russia sent an ultimatum to Turkey, demanding an immediate armistice for six weeks. Turkey yielded and England proposed a European conference, which was opened at Constantinople [December]. Turkey rejected its proposals.

The Russo-Turkish War. 1877-8.

1877. [April.] Russia declared war on Turkey. Russia recognised the independence of Roumania, and received permission to send troops through Roumanian territory. Austria declared her neutrality after Russia had promised not to occupy Constantinople and to submit the final settlement to a European Congress. England followed suit on receiving Russia's promise to keep the war from Egypt, the Suez Canal, Constantinople, and the Dardanelles. The Russians crossed the Danube and secured the Balkan passes. OSMAN PASHA with 40,000 men held up 120,000 Russians for five months at PLEVNA. The siege cost the Russians 50,000 men before Osman surrendered [December] on the failure of supplies.

1878. [January.] The Russians entered ADRIANOPLE and advanced to the fortifications of Constantinople. An English

fleet passed the Dardanelles to protect Turkey.

The Treaty of San Stefano. [March.]

(i) Turkey to pay a huge war indemnity.

(ii) Serbia, Roumania, and Montenegro to be independent.

- (iii) Bosnia and Herzegovina to receive free institutions under the supervision of Austria and Russia.
- (iv) Bulgaria to be independent and to include Eastern Roumelia and Macedonia.
 - (v) All fortresses on the Danube to be destroyed.
 - (vi) Armenia to receive guarantees of good government.
- (vii) Turkey to be governed by a Constitution, and for two years to be under the guidance of a Russian official supported by a Russian army of occupation of 50,000 men.

The terms of the treaty created consternation in the Governments of Europe. Austria and England made warlike preparations. Bismarck exerted himself on the side of peace and prevailed upon Russia to submit the treaty to the revision of a European Congress.

1878. The Congress of Berlin.

[June.] The Congress opened under the presidency of BISMARCK, "the honest broker." The Powers were represented by their Prime Ministers or their Foreign Ministers, England by Disraeli and Salisbury.

[July.] The Treaty of Berlin robbed Russia of many of the fruits of victory.

- (i) Russia to receive Bessarabia (held by Roumania since 1856), Kars, and Batoum in Asia, with a war indemnity of 200,000,000 roubles, which was to remain as a debt.
- (ii) Bulgaria, limited on the south to the Balkans, to be ruled by its own prince, but to pay tribute to Turkey.
- (iii) Eastern Roumelia to be a separate state south of the Balkans, under the rule of the Sultan.
- (iv) Roumania, Serbia, and Montenegro to be independent sovereign states.
- (v) The claims of Greece to Epirus, Thessaly, and Macedonia discussed but not granted.
- (vi) Bosnia and Herzegovina placed under the protection of Austria and occupied by Austrian troops.

This settlement effected "THE GREAT BREAK-UP" of Turkish power in the Balkan Peninsula and settled the Near Eastern Question for thirty years. England had concluded a secret treaty with Turkey, guaranteeing the Sultan's possessions in Asia and receiving the right to garrison and administer Cyprus.

Russia turned her attention to Persia (the Middle Eastern Question), to Afghanistan (the Indian North-west Frontier Problem), and to the Pacific Coast (the Far Eastern Question).

CHAPTER XVI

FRANCE. 1871-1914

THE first work of the THIRD REPUBLIC was to conclude peace and to defeat THE COMMUNARDS OF THE PARIS COMMUNE [March to May], 1871. The Communards demanded that every commune or municipality should be free to manage its own affairs. Paris refused to recognise the new Government established at Versailles and set up a revolutionary Government. This provoked a FIERCE CIVIL WAR.

The Second Siege of Paris. After a bombardment of six weeks Paris was captured. No quarter given on either side, and in a week of street-fighting 20,000-were killed, 17,000 of whom were shot after arrest. 35,000 were arrested, and half the public buildings in the city destroyed. 7,500 sent to the penal colony of New Caledonia, and 13,000 condemned to imprisonment with hard labour or exiled. It was not till 1879 that a general amnesty was proclaimed.

The History of the Third Republic was the story of the efforts to restore France to the leadership of Europe. The early years were full of difficulties: the treasury was empty, the army demoralised, the enemies of the Republic active and numerous. THIERS elected the first President. "It is the Republic which divides us least." The war indemnity paid by loans [March, 1873], raised within the country and largely oversubscribed, and France freed from the army of occupation.

1873. Napoleon III died in England.

1879. The death of his son, the Prince Imperial, in the Zulu War was a further blow to the Imperialists.

1872. An Army Bill reorganised the army. All Frenchmen to serve five years with the colours and fifteen years in the reserves. The army equipped with the latest weapons, the fortresses modernised and rearmed, and the War Department reorganised. By 1875 the army, with reserves, numbered 2,400,000 men.

1875. The Organic Laws defined the Constitution.

- (i) A President to be elected by the two Chambers in a joint sitting and to hold office for seven years. The election is still held at Versailles, the seat of government in 1875. The President was to represent France on all State occasions. He had no power to veto measures of the Chambers, but could return any measure for reconsideration, after which it became law in spite of the President, if passed by the Chambers a second time. He was entrusted with the power to pardon prisoners, but not with the power of general amnesty. He controlled the army and appointed to all civil and military posts, but could not declare war without the assent of the two Chambers.
- (ii) A Senate of 300 members to be elected for nine years, one-third to retire every three years, eligible for re-election. No man under forty years of age could be a senator. The senators elected by "electoral colleges" composed of senators and deputies of the Chamber representing the department, delegates from the municipal bodies, and various other men who themselves had been elected to different bodies. The department formed the constituency.
- (iii) A Chamber of Deputies to be elected every four years by all citizens over twenty-one years of age, unless on active service. Deputies to be over twenty-five years of age. It shared with the Senate the right of legislation, but all money bills to be first passed by the Chamber.
- (iv) The Executive or Cabinet of Ministers responsible to the Chamber and the Senate. The real head of the Government was the PRIME MINISTER.
- (v) The Seat of Government fixed at Versailles. [Removed to Paris 1879.]
- (vi) July 14, the anniversary of the fall of the Bastille in 1789, declared a NATIONAL HOLIDAY.

Education.

1872. An official inquiry into the educational state of the country showed that more than a fifth but less than a fourth of the people between the ages of six and twenty, and more than a third of the people over twenty years of age were unable to read or write.

1881. A NATIONAL SYSTEM established. Primary education (ages 6-13) free and compulsory. Private schools placed under

Government supervision.

1904. A law passed making it illegal for any member of any religious order to teach in any school. To-day public education in France is entirely under the supervision of the Government.

Quarrel with the Church.

1864. Pius IX issued the SYLLABUS declaring that the great dangers of the age were Religious Toleration, Liberty of Conscience, Freedom of the Press, Freedom of Speech, Secular Education, and the separation of Church and State. After 1871 the clerical party strongly royalist. Not till 1892 did Leo XIII advise the French bishops to accept the Republic.

1877. Gambetta declared that "CLERICALISM WAS THE ENEMY." The Education Act of 1881 an attack on the Church. THE JESUITS banished, because they supported the enemies of the Republic.

1901. The Association Laws. Religious congregations could only be formed by a special law. Every religious order to submit its rules to the Government. Education freed from clerical influence. 10,000 religious schools to be closed during the next two years.

1904. All schools controlled by the religious orders to be closed

within ten years.

1905. The Separation Law. PIUS X became Pope in 1903 and quarrelled with the French Government over the election of bishops.

Separation of Church and State.

- (i) The State no longer recognised or supported any religious organisation.
- (ii) All ecclesiastical property to be inventoried and transferred to associations of public worship.
- (iii) Churches placed at the disposal of their congregations and pastors free of charge for religious services.
- (iv) Jewish and Protestant Churches treated like Catholic ones.

The decline in the power and influence of the Church and the increasing indifference of the people to religion is one of the most marked features of modern France,

Foreign and Colonial Affairs.

The Third Republic has created a colonial dominion greater in area than the one lost in the eighteenth century.

1871. French colonial possessions consisted of ALGERIA, the SENEGAL district, a few small stations on the GUINEA COAST, a station in COCHIN CHINA, and a few small islands.

Egypt. 1869. THE SUEZ CANAL, the work of De Lesseps, a French engineer, opened.

[1875.] England purchased the shares of the Khedive, whose inability to pay the interest on English and French loans was followed by England and France taking dual control of Egyptian finances in 1878.

[1881.] Native rising against foreign control organised by ARABI BEY, the leader of the "nationalists." Massacres of Europeans. France refused to co-operate with England and withdrew in 1882.

Tunis. 1881. The Bev refused redress for attacks on French subjects. French protectorate declared.

Algeria. Revolted on the news of the downfall of Napoleon III. The last chieftain not defeated till 1874, after more than two hundred battles and skirmishes. The acquisition of the province of Algeria gave France an area nearly as large as France, containing a population of over four millions, half a million of whom were Europeans. THE ALGERIAN SAHARA now a French dependency.

Senegal. French since 1637. No extension inland till after the conquest of Algeria.

1894. TIMBUKTU occupied.

1898. MARCHAND, a French explorer, reaching the Nile, created the "FASHODA INCIDENT." The French withdrew on England's protest. South of Senegal the French possess french guiana, the IVORY COAST (1891) and the native kingdom of DAHOMEY (1891).

The French Congo. Secured with French Guiana in 1884. Twice the size of France.

Madagascar. 1885. A French protectorate. The island not conquered till 1895. Larger in area than France. With the exception of Liberia and the European coastal colonies, the whole of North-West Africa from Tunis to the Congo, and from Senegal to Lake Chad is a French "SPHERE OF INFLUENCE."

Asia. 1850. French missionaries murdered in Annam. Napoleon III compelled the King to cede part of his territory.

1864. A French protectorate established over the whole of

CAMBODIA.

1867. COCHIN CHINA annexed.

1883. A protectorate established over the whole of ANNAM.

1884. After a war China relinquished all rights over TONGKIN and ANNAM.

1893. French territory extended to the south.

America. France still retains GUIANA in South America, GUADELOUPE and MARTINIQUE in the West Indies, and ST. PIERRE and MIQUELON off the Coast of Newfoundland.

Russia. England's policy of "splendid isolation" and Russia's friendship with Germany and dislike of France left France after 1870 "revolving in its own orbit."

1875. France increased her army and aroused Bismarck's anger. Germany talked of war, but Russia and England intervened in favour of peace.

1878. Bismarck's action at the Congress of Berlin angered Russia.

1888. Russia raised a large loan in France.

1890. The dismissal of Bismarck prepared the way for a Franco-Russian alliance.

1891. The French fleet visited Russia.

1893. The Russian fleet visited France.

1894. Secret treaty of alliance signed.

1896. Nicholas II visited Paris.

1897. The French President visited Russia and the Franco-Russian "DUAL ALLIANCE" proclaimed.

England. THE BOER WAR (1899–1902) revealed to the English the danger of isolation and the unfriendly feeling of the European Powers. England alarmed by Germany's naval programme and her projected railway to Bagdad.

1903. Edward VII visited Paris. The French President returned the visit. Edward VII made many subsequent private

visits to Paris.

1904. THE ANGLO-FRENCH AGREEMENT, "the entente cordiale." France agreed to the English occupation of Egypt in return for a free hand in Morocco. Disputes in West Africa, Siam, Madagascar, and Newfoundland settled.

1906. Secret agreement between England and France against Germany. England guaranteed the protection of the north and west coasts of France.

1907. England settled her disputes with Russia in Persia and Afghanistan.

1908. Edward VII visited Russia. FRANCE, ENGLAND, and RUSSIA united in the TRIPLE ENTENTE. Europe was divided into two rival camps, the TRIPLE ENTENTE and the TRIPLE ALLIANCE and the stage was set for the Great War.

CHAPTER XVII

GERMANY. 1871-1914

Establishment of the German Empire. 1871.

[January 18.] WILLIAM, King of Prussia, elected at Versailles GERMAN EMPEROR by the rulers of the German states. The outward symbol of the unification of Germany, and the goal of Bismarck's foreign policy.

The constitution of 1867 extended over South Germany.

- (i) The Empire to be a confederation of twenty-five states with their separate Parliaments for all non-imperial affairs.
- (ii) The Sovereigns of the states to be hereditary members of the Imperial Council.
- (iii) Bavaria and Würtemberg to retain special privileges, as their own postal systems and railways.
- (iv) The King of Prussia to be HEREDITARY EMPEROR. He was the real executive head of the Empire and appointed or dismissed the Chancellor, declared war, if defensive, made treaties, was the head of the army and navy, and appointed and received ambassadors. He could prorogue or dissolve the Reichstag, but the prorogation was not to exceed sixty days, and in case of a dissolution a new Reichstag had to meet within ninety days. His assent required for all laws. The Emperor had to obtain the consent of the Bundesrath for an offensive war.
- (v) The Chancellor the chief executive officer. He presided over the Bundesrath, controlled the departments of the Empire, such as the Foreign Office, the Department of the Interior, the Postal Services. The departmental heads were not Ministers in the English sense and were independent of political parties or parliamentary majorities. The Chancellor held office during the Emperor's pleasure. As President of the Bundesrath he had the right to be present at the deliberations of the Reichstag.

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- (vi) The Bundesrath. Represented the rulers of the individual states of the Empire. Its members were in proportion to the population of the states and were nominated by the sovereigns. As King of Prussia the Emperor controlled seventeen out of the fifty-eight votes in the Bundesrath, and was able in most cases to block any measure he disapproved. The sessions were unreported. The Bundesrath prepared and drafted new laws and shared the control of the finances with the Reichstag. Under the direction of the Chancellor, in addition to its legislative functions, the Bundesrath formed a supreme administrative and consultative board.
- (vii) The Reichstag. Elected for five years by universal adult male suffrage. The electors divided into three groups according to wealth, each group electing one-third of the deputies. Prussia returned 236 of the 397 deputies. The powers of the Reichstag in no way comparable with the powers of the English House of Commons. It had little or no control over the actions of the executive, and could only criticise and amend legislation and refuse supplies. By its system of election the upper middle classes and the aristocracy controlled the Assembly.

1871. A common currency adopted for the Empire.

THE ARMY BILL extended Prussian military legislation to the Empire. "Every German liable to serve and no substitution allowed." By the Constitution of 1871 "all German troops are bound to obey unconditionally the orders of the Emperor, and must swear the oath of fidelity." Every physically fit German served three years in the active army and four years in the reserves. The total strength of trained men was about 2,650,000. The fortresses entirely remodelled, and a system of fortification created.

1873. The Imperial Bank and the Imperial Post Office established.

1877. An Imperial Court of Appeal for all criminal cases established at Leipzig.

The Kultur Kampf or War in Defence of Civilisation.

1870. Some of the German bishops, "THE OLD CATHOLICS," protested against the new doctrine of "papal infallibility" and were excommunicated. Supported by Bismarck. The "NEW CATHOLICS" in vain demanded their removal from posts in the Universities and schools.

1872. The Jesuits, the chief supporters of the Pope, expelled

from the Empire.

1873. "The May Laws." Passed by Prussia only. No priest could officiate unless he had passed through a German preparatory school, spent three years at a German university, and obtained a government certificate of his training in three faculties besides theology. Any bishop appointing a priest not properly qualified liable to a heavy fine.

1876. Compulsory civil marriages before a registrar, and compulsory civil registration of births and burials established. Opposition of the Catholics, who numbered one-third of the population of

the Empire.

1878. Accession of Leo XIII. His attitude enabled Bismarck to withdraw from an impossible situation. All the anti-clerical legislation, except the law enforcing civil marriages and the civil registration of births and burials, abandoned. The Emperor retained a final decision in all ecclesiastical appointments.

Rise of Socialism.

1818. Karl Marx, the founder of "SCIENTIFIC SOCIALISM," born at Trèves.

1867. The first part of his book, "DAS KAPITAL," "the Bible of the Socialists," published.

1869. The Social Democratic Labour Party founded.

1877. The Socialists polled nearly 500,000 votes and returned twelve deputies to the Reichstag. Bismarck alarmed. An attempt

on the Emperor's life gave him his opportunity.

1878. Anti-Socialist Legislation. Prohibition of the holding of Socialist meetings. This law remained in force for twelve years. Prohibition of the publication of Socialist opinions. Expulsion of all Socialists from the Empire. These laws formed one of the causes of the quarrel between Bismarck and William II after 1888. After the dismissal of Bismarck in 1890 his anti-socialist legislation repealed.

SOCIAL LEGISLATION provided by Bismarck as an antidote to

1883. A sickness insurance scheme.

1884. An accident insurance scheme. Employers to provide a fund to insure their employees against accidents.

1889. Old Age Pensions. Workmen to pay towards a

pension fund to provide pensions at the age of seventy, or earlier, if the worker were incapacitated.

The Socialists made rapid progress, becoming after 1900 the most numerous party in the Empire.

1893. They returned forty-four members to the Reichstag.

1895. The policy of coercion revived. William II declared that "every Social Democrat was an enemy of the Empire and the Fatherland."

1903. The Socialists polled three million votes and returned eighty-one members.

1912. The Socialists returned 110 members and secured four and a quarter million votes in a total vote of ten and a half million for 346 members. The Socialist menace an important factor in determining the Emperor and his advisers on a European War.

Foreign Affairs.

1875. Talk of war against France (see page 88).

1878. The Berlin Congress (see page 83).

1879. Alliance with Austria.

1882. The Triple Alliance. The expansion of the Dual Alliance of 1879. Bismarck encouraged the French attack on Tunis. France and Italy alienated. Germany, Italy, and Austria agreed to assist one another in case any one of them was attacked by any other European Power. Bismarck maintained friendship with Russia and kept Germany at peace for twenty years. After his fall the Emperor preserved an uneasy peace for a further twenty-four years.

1896. The Emperor's congratulatory telegram to KRUGER on the occasion of the JAMESON RAID resented in England. German attacks on the conduct of the British troops during the Boer War. England driven into alliance with France and later with Russia. The British Government refused its assent to the projected German railway to Bagdad.

1897 and 1898. William II paid visits to Constantinople.

1905. Germany supported MOROCCO against French encroach ments.

1906. The European Conference of Algeciras recognised the integrity of Morocco, though France was authorised to police the coast towns.

After the English occupation of Egypt, Turkey drew towards Germany, and German officers reorganised the Turkish army.

Naval and Colonial Affairs.

Germany had no fleet before 1872. Bismarck opposed any scheme of naval expansion as likely to arouse the hostility of England.

1890. Heligoland secured from England in exchange for ZANZIBAR.

1895. William II opening the KIEL CANAL declared that "our future lies on the water."

- 1898. The Navy League founded and rapidly became popular. Germany began to build on a large scale and adopted a definite naval programme. 1914. The Germans had the second most powerful fleet in Europe.
- 1882. The German Colonial Society formed at Frankfort. Germany demanded "a place in the sun." The birth of "WELT-POLITIK" or world-politics.
- 1884. Germany established her claims to German South-West Africa, Togoland, and the district of Kamerun in Africa.
- 1885. The German East Africa Company formed to exploit the district round Zanzibar.
- **1897.** Germany secured Kiau-Chau in China after "the mailed fist" expedition to avenge the murder of German missionaries in China.

1899. The CAROLINE ISLANDS in the Pacific purchased from Spain and part of the SOLOMON group acquired.

1900. A German general commanded European expedition to avenge the murder of German missionaries and to raise the siege of the European legations at Pekin by the BOXERS.

The Dismissal of Bismarck. 1890.

1888. [March.] Death of William I at the age of ninety. Succeeded by his son, the Crown Prince Frederick, the husband of Queen Victoria's eldest daughter. Frederick was slowly dying when he became Emperor, and reigned only three months.

[June 15.] Accession of William II, his son, hailed with joy by the reactionaries and the militarists. William believed in his "DIVINE RIGHT" to rule, and worshipped the memory of his grandfather, William I. Quarrelled with Bismarck over the anti-socialist legislation of 1878, and insisted on being consulted on all State affairs. The exact point of quarrel was the relationship of the Ministers to the Emperor. Bismarck insisted that all communica-

tions from the Ministers should reach the Emperor through himself as Chancellor.

1890. William demanded BISMARCK'S RESIGNATION. Bismarck retired to his country estates and revenged himself by bitter attacks on his successor and on the Emperor's policy. William retaliated by honouring Bismarck's political opponents. The quarrel scandalised Germany, and a public reconciliation was effected in 1894.

898. Death of Bismarck.

CHAPTER XVIII

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY. 1867-1914

Home Affairs.

AFTER the Austrian defeat in 1866 (see page 73) Hungary demanded a Constitution.

1867. The "Ausgleich" or COMPROMISE established THE DUAL MONARCHY, dividing the Empire into two equal states, the Austrian Empire, containing seventeen provinces, and the Hungarian Monarchy.

Francis Joseph, crowned King of Hungary at Pesth, took the title of Emperor of Austria and King of Hungary. Hungary secured complete Home Rule with a Hungarian Parliament at Pesth, except for foreign affairs, the army, and finances. These three were reserved for the "DELEGATIONS," consisting of sixty members elected by the Austrian Reichstag and sixty by the Hungarian Diet, sitting alternately at Vienna and Pesth. If they could not agree after separate deliberations they were to unite and vote in silence. A joint cabinet formed the executive for the same departments.

The Liberal Constitution of 1848 was revived in Hungary, the King appointing the Ministers, who were to be responsible to the Diet, which was constituted of two houses, a Chamber of Magnates, mainly hereditary nobles, and a Chamber of Deputies, elected on a property qualification, which excluded three-quarters of the adult male population from the franchise.

1906. The franchise extended to all males over twenty-four years of age with one year's residential qualification.

1907. THE SOCIALISTS gained over fifty seats.

The Emperor promised to elect Ministers who enjoyed the confidence of Parliament, and to appoint to Government posts without regard to creed.

THE CHURCH lost control of the schools. Complete religious liberty was guaranteed and civil marriage allowed.

The Magyars agitated till they obtained the right to officer the Hungarian army and to carry their own flags. The other constituent races of the Empire, especially the CZECHS of Bohemia and the POLES of Galicia, continued to agitate for HOME RULE.

The Italians in the Trentino and in Istria agitated for union with Italy. These two districts constituted the unredeemed Italy, "ITALIA IRREDENTA."

Foreign Affairs.

1867. Napoleon and Francis Joseph discussed an alliance against Germany, but Austria turned her attention to the Balkans and declared her neutrality in 1870. After 1871 she abandoned all idea of a war of revenge on Prussia.

1870. Bismarck suggested an Austro-German alliance to crush socialism and revolution.

1872. The League of the Three Emperors. William I, Francis Joseph, and Alexander II agreed at Berlin to unite for the suppression of revolutionary propaganda, and to settle any question that should arise in the East by joint action.

1878. Austria authorised to occupy Bosnia and Herzegovina (see page 83). Anger of Russia.

1879. The Dual Alliance (see page 193).

1908. Annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Serbia cut off from the sea and prevented from absorbing the two Slav states.

1912-13. The Two Balkan Wars (see page 111). Austria suggested to Italy an immediate joint attack on Serbia. Italy refused.

1914. [June.] The Serajevo Murders (see page 124).

CHAPTER XIX

ITALY. 1870-1914

Home Affairs.

THE Pope's refusal to recognise the new Government (see page 69) or to allow Catholics to vote or accept office was a constant source of embarrassment to the Government.

South Italy impoverished and its people ignorant and superstitious. As late as 1901 seventy per cent. of the population over six years of age could neither read nor write. North Italy more progressive, but the industrial areas were disturbed by the activities of Socialist and Labour agitators.

In spite of heavy taxation THE FINANCES were in a state of chaos and heavy deficits were accumulated year by year. Bad trade and unemployment chronic.

1878. Accession of HUMBERT. The reign characterised by political demoralisation, riots in the north, and corruption in Government offices.

1887-96. Crispi, as Prime Minister, exercised the power of a distance, dissolving the Socialist and Republican societies and ruling in the interests of the middle classes. Driven from power owing to Italian defeats in Abyssinia.

1900. HUMBERT ASSASSINATED. Accession of the present King VICTOR EMMANUEL 111.

1904. The Socialists polled over 300,000 votes and returned 30 members to the Chamber of Deputies. A general strike and riots in the north brought the business life of Italy to a standstill. Italy in 1914 burdened with a huge NATIONAL DEBT and corruption in public life.

The Constitution.

The Constitution of Piedmont extended over the kingdom of Italy. THE LEGISLATIVE POWER resided in the king and two houses; THE SENATE, containing an unlimited number of

Senators over 40 years of age, nominated by the King, and The Chamber of Deputies, elected for five years by adult males, who paid 16s. 8d. a year in direct taxes.

Parliament must meet annually, and each House can initiate legislation, except money bills, which must originate in the Lower House.

The King advised by Ministers responsible to Parliament.

Foreign Affairs.

Italy and France estranged over the Papal Question. Bismarck courted Italy.

1873. VICTOR EMMANUEL visited Vienna and Berlin.

1881. Italy and France on the verge of war over the French occupation of Tunis.

1883. Italy joined Germany and Austria in the TRIPLE ALLIANCE, but the friendship between Austria and Italy was not cordial on account of the Austrian possession of the Trentino and Istria.

1887. The Abyssinian War. Lasted fifteen years. The Italian colonies of ERITREA and SOMALILAND useless for Italian colonists owing to their bad climate. The Italian colonial policy proved an expensive luxury.

1896. French concessions with regard to Italian trade in Tunis.

1898. The Tariff War with France settled.

1903 and 1904. France and Italy exchanged State visits.

1906. Italy supported France against Germany at the Algerias Conference (see page 93).

1908. Italy alienated from Austria by the annexation of Bosnia and Hérzegovina (see page 97).

1911-12. War with Turkey. TRIPOLI annexed against the wishes of Germany and Austria.

1913. Italy refused to join Austria in an attack on Serbia.

1914. [August.] Italy declared her neutrality on the ground that Germany and Austria were the aggressors.

CHAPTER XX

RUSSIA. 1815-1914

Internal Affairs.

THE strength of Russia more apparent than real. Her weakness due to the nature of her Government and the divisions of the population.

The Government. In the hands of the CZAR, who appointed or dismissed all officials, made laws and collected taxes, was the ruling and official head of the Greek Church to which all Russians owed allegiance, made war or peace, could order the arrest, imprisonment, exile, or execution of his subjects at will. No Parliament, no right of public meeting, no freedom of speech or of the Press. The administration corrupt and inefficient. The armies inadequately equipped and led by incompetent officers.

The Population. The largest in Europe, but only three-fifths were Russians. Included finns, germans, poles, jews, tartars, armenians, georgians, and mongols. The Russian language used in the schools and by the officials throughout the Russian Empire. The population divided into three main classes: nobles, numbering about one million, clergy, and peasants, numbering about forty-five millions, half of whom were serfs, working for their masters three days a week without payment. The noble acted as judge and could flog or kill his serfs. The peasantry was the most illiterate in Europe, and paid nearly all the taxes. There was no manufacturing class till after the middle of the century.

1801-25. Alexander I. In his early years Alexander a liberal monarch, believing in a measure of constitutional government. Revoked the decrees prohibiting the importation of books and the travelling abroad of his subjects, favoured scholars and established three universities.

1802. A Ministry, created on the Western model, discussed plans for the abolition of serfdom and the creation of a Constitution.

His zeal for reforms destroyed by METTERNICH after 1815. He denounced liberalism as "a frightful illusion," and prohibited the teaching of modern science at the universities.

1823. Russians forbidden to attend German universities.

1825-55. Nicholas I. The younger brother of Alexander, and a thorough reactionary. THE "DECEMBRIST REVOLT." An attempted rising to demand a Constitution, ruthlessly crushed and a severe Press censorship established. An efficient secret police, "THE THIRD SECTION OF HIS MAJESTY'S CHANCERY," crushed all liberal aspirations. Russians forbidden to leave Russia and a costly passport, difficult to obtain, required by any foreigner entering Russia. Five hundred riots of serfs occurred during the reign. The Russian defeats in the Crimean War stimulated the reformers and hastened the death of Nicholas.

1855-81. Alexander II. A man of liberal views and kindly feelings.

1855-65. AN EPOCH OF GREAT REFORMS.

1858. Alexander liberated all the serfs on the royal estates, and created committees of nobles to draw up plans for the liberation of their serfs.

1861. The Edict of Emancipation issued by the Czar. ABOLISHED SERFDOM throughout Russia. The landowners surrendered a great part of their estates to the MIR or village community, to be redistributed periodically among the families of the community. No peasant had any permanent claim to the land he tilled. A system producing a low standard of cultivation. The price the landowner received, far in excess of the value of the land, advanced by the Government, which collected the amount due from the peasant in the form of a very high land-tax. No peasant in arrears could leave his village. Flogging the penalty for non-payment.

1864. Zemstvos or Provincial councils established for every province. Elected by nobles townsfolk and peasants, and responsible for the upkeep of roads and bridges, the election of magistrates, and provision against famine. The governor of the province, appointed by the Czar, could veto any proposal of the Zemstvos.

1865. A limited freedom of the Press established in Moscow and St. Petersburg only, the Government retaining the power to suppress any paper.

A small dole of educational reform granted, science being admitted

to the curriculum, and the universities being opened to poor students.

A moderate measure of judicial reform granted, courts of appeal being established and trial by jury allowed for criminal offences. "POLITICAL CASES" still tried by Government officials. After 1865 Alexander became reactionary.

Rise of Nihilism. The term introduced into Russia by Turgenief. "In its origin Nihilism was an intellectual and moral revolt against despotism and bigotry." Police activities drove the more ardent Nihilists to "TERRORISM" and secret societies.

1866. An attempt to assassinate the Czar followed by an orgy of secret trials, executions, and transportations to Siberia. Numerous Government officials assassinated.

1879-80. Three attempts on the life of the Czar.

1881. Alexander prepared a plan for a kind of Constitution. An Assembly to be elected by the people "to give advice to the Czar," who retained to the full his autocratic powers.

[March 13.] ALEXANDER ASSASSINATED.

1881-94. Alexander III. "The incarnation of the reactionary spirit." The proposed Constitution abandoned and a vigorous Press censorship established. The universities closely supervised. The representation of the Zemstvos made less democratic by reducing the representation of the peasants and excluding all schoolmasters, doctors, and solicitors. The elected magistrates replaced by Government officials with power to settle all cases at discretion.

The Industrial Revolution began about 1886.

1886-96. Railways and industries rapidly developed. Rapid growth of new manufacturing towns.

1886. A "STRIKE" made a criminal offence.

"Pogroms" or assassinations of Jews, who numbered 5,000,000, organised by the Government to divert attention from reforms.

1888. The Jows ordered to reside in fifteen Russian and ten Polish provinces, which were known as Jewish Territory. No Jew could employ a Christian and no Christian could employ a Jew. Special taxes levied on Jews. Thousands of Russian Jews emigrated to England and America.

The Nihilist Societies active throughout the reign and the secret police made thousands of arrests.

Alexander died at the age of 49.

1894-1917. Nicholas II. The reactionary policy continued.

The Zemstvos requested that their representatives should assist in drafting laws. Told by Nicholas not to indulge in such "senseless dreams." The early years of the reign were quiet.

De Witte, the Minister of Finance. A moderate reformer. Fostered the growing industries of Russia by excluding foreign goods by a heavy tariff and purchasing the railways from their private owners.

1901. The TRANS-SIBERIAN RAILWAY completed.

1903. De Witte dismissed by Nicholas, who was alarmed at the spread of socialism and the growing frequency of strikes.

Von Plehve, Minister of the Interior. Became virtual dictator. A thoroughgoing reactionary. The censorship of the Press became stricter and university teachers were warned not to talk about politics. In his first year of office there were 12,000 "POLITICAL CASES" tried before special secret tribunals. A new series of pogroms instituted.

1903. The massacre of thousands of Jews at Kishenev, probably organised by von Plehve, horrified the civilised world.

1903. The Constitutional Society formed to demand a Representative Assembly with power to govern the country, freedom of speech and of the Press, the right to hold public meetings, abolition of the system of secret police and of religious persecution, and trial by Jury for all cases.

1904. [February.] WAR WITH JAPAN. The Russian disasters aroused popular indignation, and the war itself very unpopular.

[July.] Assassination of von Plehve. Received with popular rejoicing.

[November.] The Zemstvos demanded:—

- (i) An elective Parliament with control over finance and full legislative powers.
- (ii) Freedom of conscience, speech, meeting, association, and instruction.
 - (iii) Freedom from arbitrary and illegal imprisonment.
 - (iv) An amnesty for all political prisoners.

The Czar denounced these demands as "incompatible with the fundamental laws of the country."

1905. [January 22.] Bloody Sunday. A deputation led by father gapon gave the Czar notice of the intention of the workers of St. Petersburg of marching to the palace to ask him to give his personal attention to their sufferings and to call an assembly to

save Russia. The troops shot and cut down hundreds and wounded thousands of unarmed peasants in a conflict which lasted all day.

[January 23.] All the leading lawyers and men of letters in St. Petersburg joined in a declaration that "the public should understand that the Government has declared war on the entire Russian people. We hereby summon all the vital energies of Russian society to assist the working men in the struggle for the common cause of the whole nation." The failure of the crops followed by riots. Police officers assassinated in hundreds. Commerce and industry stagnated. The sailors and reservists, ordered to the East, mutinied.

[February.] Assassination of the Czar's uncle, the Grand Duke

Sergius, a noted reactionary.

[June.] Trepoff, notorious for his brutality, given full powers to restore order. As Minister of Police organised the infamous "BLACK HUNDREDS." Floggings, imprisonment, torture, exile, or execution answered the demand for reforms.

Rise of the Social Democratic Movement. The moderates

advocated the socialism of Karl Marx (see page 92).

The Socialist Revolutionary Party. An extreme section, led by LENIN. Preached the right to make war against the State. A policy of "ORGANISED STRIKES" adopted. Mutinies in the army and navy and a revolt in Moscow followed by savage reprisals. The railways placed under martial law and the universities closed.

[October.] A General Strike of railwaymen, industrial and agricultural labourers, doctors, chemists, clerks, and shopkeepers

paralysed the life of Russia.

[October 29.] The Czar offered a constitution. A duma or Parliament to be elected on a wide suffrage, with power to make laws. Count witte, the least unpopular of the Czar's Ministers, appointed Prime Minister. Popular demonstrations in favour of the Czar.

1906. [March.] Manifesto of the Czar. The elected Duma to be supplemented by the conversion of the Council of the Empire into a Second Chamber with half its members nominated by the Czar. All laws had to pass both houses before being submitted to the Czar for his final decision.

[May 10.] The First Duma. The reformers united as the Constitutional Democratic Party had an overwhelming majority and De Witte resigned.

The Work of the Duma.

- (i) Passed a resolution that Ministers should be responsible to the Parliament.
 - (ii) Passed a vote of censure on the Government.
- (iii) Appointed a committee to investigate the part taken by Government officials in the pogroms at Odessa and Khief.
- (iv) Demanded an account of the public income and expenditure.
 - (v) Passed a bill abolishing capital punishment.
 - (vi) Declared an amnesty for all political prisoners.

[July 21.] Dissolution of the Duma. Nicholas appointed the reactionary STOLYPIN as his chief Minister. Wholesale arrests and banishment of reformers.

[September-October.] Three thousand shot or hanged after "drum-head" courts-martial. From July to the end of the year 9,000 persons were killed or wounded for political reasons. The appearance of famine added to the horrors.

- 1907. [March 5.] The Second Duma. The Government failed to prevent the election of a majority of reformers. The Social Democrats in the Duma accused of complicity in a plot to assassinate the Czar. Stolypin demanded the arrest of sixteen and the expulsion of forty others, but the Duma appointed a committee to examine the evidence and was immediately dissolved. The Socialist deputies sent to Siberia and hundreds of executions and thousands of arrests followed. The Socialists replied by the murder of police and Government officials. Stolypin not assassinated till 1911.
- 1907-12. The Third Duma. Elected on a narrow franchise. Very docile, the landowners being in a majority. It lived its full term of years and effected a few moderate reforms.
- 1912. The Fourth Duma. Equally powerless to effect real reforms.
- 1914. The war revealed the utter incompetence and rottenness of the Government. The Russian soldiers went into the war ill equipped and lost their lives in millions during 1914–15–16.
- 1916. The Duma declared that "DARK FORCES" were paralysing the nation. The Czar's German wife and her confidant, the monk RASPUTIN, opposed every reform. Rasputin murdered. All liberals dismissed from the Government.
 - 1917. [March.] Bread Riots in St. Petersburg. The troops

refused to fire on the rioters. The Duma declared for the establishment of a PROVISIONAL GOVERNMENT.

[March 15.] Abdication of Nicholas. His son's abdication signed by Nicholas at the same time (see p. 128).

Poland.

The congress of Vienna had recognised the nationality and the partial independence of the Poles (see page 34). Alexander I full of liberal sentiments towards his new subjects. The Polish Diet resisted any attempts at Russian control. After the accession of Nicholas I Russian interference increased.

1830. Polish Rising. Inspired by the Paris Revolution.

[November.] A military revolt at Warsaw. The Diet proclaimed a NATIONAL REVOLUTION. Nicholas demanded unconditional surrender and sent an army of 120,000 Russians.

1831. Proclamation of Independence. Austria declared her neutrality and England joined France in a formal remonstrance. The Polish army of 40,000 men fought bravely, but was crushed.

[September.] Warsaw surrendered to the Russians.

1832. [February.] Poland declared a RUSSIAN PROVINCE; it retained its own judicial and administrative machinery, but the Diet was replaced by a Council of State nominated by the Czar.

1847. Poland declared part of Russia.

1855. Alexander II granted an amnesty for all political offenders. Many Polish exiles returned from France and revived the demand for the recognition of Polish nationality.

1862. The Poles petitioned Alexander for the restoration of the Constitution. The military conscription of all disaffected Poles ordered. Riots developed into a general insurrection, but the Poles were disorganised and unarmed. France and England content with expressions of sympathy, whilst Austria watched Russian action with suspicion. Bismarck's support of Russia settled the fate of the Poles.

1863. [July.] Russia rejected the proffered intervention of England, France, and Austria.

1864. [March.] The revolt crushed. Thousands of Poles sent to Siberia. The Polish language forbidden in the law courts and schools. Poland gave little further trouble till after 1914. The National Movement kept alive and the Polish demand for self-government found support in the first Duma. During the

sitting of the third Duma Poland was governed in a more liberal spirit.

Turkey.

Russia and the Greek War of Independence (see Chapter X).

1833. Treaty of Unkiar Skelessi. MEHEMET ALI, disappointed after the Greek War of Independence, demanded for IBRAHIM the pashalik of Damascus.

1832. Ibrahim invaded Syria with 30,000 men on the Sultan's refusal. Captured Acre and Damascus. Defeating the Sultan's armies, he crossed the mountains into Asia Minor. The route to Constantinople open and the Sultan forced to accept Russia's offer of help. England and France protested, but Russia landed men on both sides of the Bosphorus.

1833. Mehemet Ali granted the governorship of Syria, and Turkey signed THE TREATY OF UNKIAR SKELESSI, forming an offensive and defensive alliance with Russia. The Dardanelles to be closed to the warships of all nations.

1839. The Sultan invaded Syria to avenge the defeats of 1832. Ibrahim's victory at NESSIB opened the road to Constantinople, and Sultan Mahmoud died, leaving the throne to his son, sixteen years of age. The Turkish fleet deserted to Mehemet Ali, who was supported by France. Nicholas made overtures to England.

1840. England, Russia, Prussia, and Austria agreed to protect Turkey from Mehemet Ali. Thiers threatened war, but Louis Philippe dismissed him from office. A British, Austrian, and Turkish fleet appeared off the coast of Syria and Ibrahim withdrew. The allied fleet captured Acre, and a naval demonstration off Alexandria forced Mehemet Ali to relinquish all claim to Syria on being guaranteed his possessions in Egypt.

1842. The Convention of London. A diplomatic victory for Russia. The Dardanelles closed to the Warships of All Nations. This convention was renewed in 1879.

The Crimean War (see Chapter XI). The Russo-Turkish war of 1877-8 (see Chapter XV).

Finland.

The Congress of Vienna confirmed the Russian conquest of Finland of 1808, and Alexander took the title of Grand duke of Finland, allowing the country to retain its National Assembly.

- 1863. Alexander II confirmed the Finn Constitution, but Alexander III began a policy of Russianising Finland, making a knowledge of Russian compulsory for all posts in the Finn Civil Service.
- 1894. Nicholas II confirmed the liberties of Finland, but inaugurated a policy of repression in 1898, declaring Finland a part of the Russian Empire. Conscription for the Russian army extended to Finland, and Russian officers appointed to command the Finn regiments. The right of legislation taken from the Finn Parliament. Nicholas refused to listen to any protests, and von Plehve terrorised the country.
- 1905. After a national strike and the adoption of a policy of passive resistance Nicholas promised to restore the liberties of Finland. The Diet summoned and universal adult suffrage given to men and women.
- 1910. The Russian Duma annulled the Finn Constitution on the ground that the Diet had failed to control the Socialist deputies. The resistance of the Finns continued to the outbreak of the war in 1914.

China and Japan.

- 1860. The Russians founded Vladivostok, "the lord of the East."
- 1894. Russia intervened to rob Japan of the fruits of her victory over China.
- 1896. Russia given the right to construct a branch of the Trans-Siberian railway through Manchuria to Vladivostok and to garrison the line in Manchuria.
 - 1898. Russia obtained PORT ARTHUR as a naval base.
- 1900. The Boxer Rising in China against the intrusion of "FOREIGN DEVILS." The Russians participated in the march to Pekin to relieve the legations.
- 1903. Russia intervened in KOREA, which Japan claimed as her sphere of influence. The Russian Government refused to discuss a Japanese offer to recognise Russia's position in Manchuria, if Russia would recognise the Japanese claims to Korea.
- 1904-5. The Russo-Japanese War. The Japanese landed in Korea and established themselves on the Yalu River. A second Japanese army laid siege to Port Arthur, where the Russian fleet was forced to take refuge after a naval engagement. KUROPATKIN, the Russian commander, hampered by lack of supplies and rein-

forcements. Incompetence of the Russian Government revealed to Europe.

1905. [January 1.] Port Arthur captured after a terrible siege of seven months.

[March.] The Battle of Mukden. The Russians defeated along a front of ninety miles after fighting lasting two weeks. "The first of modern battles." The Russians lost 40,000 killed and more than 100,000 wounded.

[May.] The Battle of Tsushima. The first important naval engagement since Trafalgar and the first fought under steam conditions. The Russian Baltic fleet annihilated by rogo in the straits off Korea. Twenty-two Russian vessels sunk and six captured.

The Russian Government, threatened with revolution, ready for peace. Japan exhausted. The offer of president roosevelt of America to discuss peace terms with the combatants accepted.

[August.] Treaty of Portsmouth (in America). Russia ceded Port Arthur to Japan, evacuated Manchuria, and recognised the right of Japan to administer Korea. (1907. The Japanese forced the Emperor of Korea to abdicate and Korea became a Japanese province.)

CHAPTER XXI

TURKEY AND THE BALKANS. 1878-1914

THE Treaty of Berlin was too much of a compromise to provide a lasting settlement.

1881. GREECE obtained Thessaly and part of Epirus.

1885. EAST ROUMELIA declared for union with BULGARIA, the Powers protesting, but refusing to act. Serbia declared war on Bulgaria, but was defeated. The union of Bulgaria and East Roumelia recognised.

1889. A Christian revolt in CRETE. The island in a state of constant disorder till 1897. The Cretans demanded independence

and were supported by the Greeks.

1897. War between GREECE and TURKEY lasted one month. The Turkish armies, drilled and organised by German officers, everywhere victorious. The Powers insisted on an armistice.

Treaty of Constantinople. Turkey recognised the autonomy of Greece. Thessaly formally united to Greece, which had to pay a war indemnity.

1904. Venizelos. The leader of the Nationalist Party in Crete, headed a revolt to secure the complete independence of Crete, and its union with Greece.

1909. Venizelos Prime Minister of Greece.

1912. Venizelos created the BALKAN LEAGUE of Greece, Bulgaria, Serbia, and Montenegro.

1895-96. The Armenian Massacres horrified Europe. 200,000 Armenians butchered by the Turk.

1908. Rise of the "Young Turks." Demanded a Turkish Constitution and compelled the Sultan to grant an Assembly. [December.] Opened at Constantinople by Abdul-Hamid. Bulgaria declared her full independence and Austria annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Deposition of Abdul-Hamid by the Young Turks. The revival of Turkish religious and patriotic fervour led to increased discontent in the subject Christian provinces.

- 1911. Italy Declared War on Turkey. Italian subjects in Tripoli had been ill-treated by the Turk. The Italians overran Tripoli, defeated the Turk on the seas, and conquered Rhodes.
 - 1912. Tripoli and Rhodes ceded to Italy.
- 1912. [October.] First Balkan War. The Balkan League declared war. The Greeks advanced into Macedonia and Thrace; the Serbs and Montenegrins attacked Albania, and the Bulgars advanced towards Constantinople. The Bulgars did the lion's share of the fighting.
 - 1913. Capture of Adrianople.

TREATY OF LONDON [MAY 1913]

- (i) Greece obtained Macedonia, Crete, and the port of Salonika.
 - (ii) Bulgaria extended to the sea on the south.
 - (iii) Serbia and Montenegro nearly doubled in size.
 - (iv) Austria insisted on the independence of Albania.
- (v) The Balkan States to settle their new boundaries in detail by mutual agreement.
- 1913. The Second Balkan War. Austria encouraged Bulgaria to demand Salonika and a large part of Macedonia from Greece.

[March.] Assassination of KING GEORGE of Greece at Salonika. Accession of his son, CONSTANTINE ("Tino").

[June.] THE BULGARS attacked the SERBS, who were joined by the GREEKS and the ROUMANIANS. Bulgaria invaded and the Bulgars heavily defeated. The Turks seized the opportunity to reoccupy Adrianople.

[August.] The Treaty of Bucharest. Greece kept Salonika. Bulgaria retained her foothold on the Aegean sea-coast. Serbia extended into Central Macedonia.

[September.] Bulgaria concluded peace with Turkey, acknowledging the Turkish retention of Adrianople. Austria suggested to Italy a joint attack on Serbia.

1914. [June 28.] Assassination of the Archduke Francis Ferdinand (see page 124).

CHAPTER XXII

SPAIN. 1815-1914

THE history of Spain during the nineteenth century a succession of rebellions, military revolts, civil wars, and conflicts between the reactionaries headed by the monarch and the Liberals.

1814-33. Ferdinand VII. Restored to his throne by the victories of Wellington.

Napoleon had effected many reforms in Spain. Abolition of feudal dues. Removal of internal custom barrier. Reduction of convents to one-third of their former number. Suppression of the Inquisition. Industries freed from restrictions

The Constitution of 1812. Ferdinand promised to observe it. Drawn up by a cortes or National Parliament.

- (i) The Government placed in the hands of a Ministry responsible to the Cortes.
- (ii) The Legislature to consist of a single Chamber, the Cortes, elected every two years by universal adult male suffrage.
- (iii) The clergy to be excluded from all share in the Government.
 - (iv) The Ministers to be excluded from the Cortes.
 - (v) Roman Catholicism recognised as the national religion.
 - (vi) Church lands to be appropriated by the State.
 - (vii) Recognition of the freedom of the Press.
- (viii) Abolition of the Inquisition.

The reign of Ferdinand full of troubles. The Government in the hands of a "CAMARILLA" of low favourites became more and more despotic. After 1815 Ferdinand annulled the Constitution of 1812 as "anarchical and seditious," those who supported it being declared guilty of high treason. Liberals exiled, imprisoned, or executed, and Freedom of Speech and of the Press withdrawn. Monastic property restored to the monks, the Inquisition and "religious orders" re-established, and the old feudal privileges of the nobles

revived. The country drifted towards financial and administrative chaos. Constant disturbances.

The Revolt of 1820. The soldiers, mobilised to suppress the revolt of the Spanish colonies in South America, mutinied and declared for the Constitution of 1812. The Jesuits banished, the monasteries dissolved, and the Inquisition abolished. Ferdinand remained in the hands of the victorious rebels till 1823.

The Congress of Verona (see Appendix E) sanctioned the restoration of Ferdinand by French troops. The DUC D'ANGOULÊME with 95,000 men entered Madrid, captured Cadiz, and re-established Ferdinand. (The French remained in Spain till 1828.) Ferdinand had promised a general amnesty and the retention of the Constitution of 1812, but repudiated his promises and indulged in an orgy of cruelty till his death in 1833.

The Establishment of the South American Republics.

1810. The Spanish Colonies in South America rejected Spanish rule. Ferdinand VII attempted to reassert the authority of Spain and great cruelties were practised by his soldiers.

1817. Bolivar established the independence of VENEZUELA, and by 1822 Spain had lost NEW GRANADA, PERU, ECUADOR, CHILE, and MENICO.

1822. THE CONGRESS OF VERONA and the question of the Spanish colonies (see Appendix E).

1823. President Monroe's Address to Congress. This famous declaration, known as THE MONROE DOCTRINE, was the composition of John Quincy Adams, the American Secretary of State.

"We could not view any interposition for the purpose of oppressing them (the Spanish Colonies), or controlling in any manner their destiny by any European Power, in any other light than a manifestation of an unfriendly disposition towards the United States."

Canning, English Foreign Secretary (September 1822), supported the United States.

1823. Canning appointed consuls to watch English interests in South America.

1824. England recognised the independence of MEXICO, BUENOS AYRES, COLOMBIA, and VENEZUELA, and signed a commercial treaty

with BRAZIL. "We have created a new world to redress the balance of the old."

The Carlist Wars. 1833-40.

1833. Just before his death Ferdinand VII issued a PRAGMATIC SANCTION, suspending the Salic Law, and declared his daughter ISABELLA his successor. His younger brother don Carlos claimed the Crown and involved Spain in a Civil War which ravaged the country, 1833–40. By 1839 everybody was tired of the war. Don Carlos left Spain when England and France declared in favour of Isabella in 1840, and died in exile in 1855.

1843–68. Isabella. Nominally Queen since 1833, but began her reign when declared of age in 1843. The reign full of disturbances, and military revolts owing to the attempts of the Queen to rule despotically, aided by a succession of low favourites. The Queen's private life was the scandal of Europe and disgusted the old Conservatives.

1846. Isabella married her cousin, a degenerate prince (the Spanish Marriage, see p. 44). The Liberals active throughout the reign. Constant revolts to secure the Constitution of 1812.

1868. Isabella deposed by a military revolt. Retired to Paris, where she lived the remainder of her life.

The failure to secure the election of a Hohenzollern prince (see p. 77) was followed by the acceptance of AMADEUS, the son of Victor Emmanuel. He abdicated in 1873, disgusted with his lack of power.

1873. Proclamation of a Republic. The years 1868-74 full of disturbances and anarchy.

1874–86. Alfonso XII. Alfonso, the son of Isabella, accepted as King [1874]. Gradual restoration of order.

1876. Proclamation of the Constitution of 1876.

- (i) The King and the Cortes to constitute the executive power.
- (ii) The Cortes to consist of two Houses, (a) the Senate, half nominated by the Crown or sitting by right of birth or office, half elected by the clergy, the universities, and various learned societies, and (b) the Congress elected on a high property qualification test. (1890. All male Spaniards over twenty-five years of age given the franchise.)
- (iii) All laws to be approved by majorities in both the Senate and the Congress.

- (iv) The King could convoke, suspend, close, or dissolve the Cortes. He could suspend only once in a session, and in case of dissolution a new Cortes to be elected within three months.
- (v) The Ministers to be responsible for all acts of the Government.
- (vi) The King had the power of declaring war, concluding treaties, and commanded the army and navy.
- (vii) The appointment and dismissal of Ministers to be in the King's hands.
 - (viii) The Cortes alone to authorise taxation.

During the reign of Alfonso XII Spain steadily declined. THE REACTIONARIES secured the abolition of Trial by Jury, the strict regulation of the right of public meeting, and the recognition of Catholicism as the national religion. Though liberty of conscience was granted, no outward sign of the Protestant faith was permitted.

1886-Present day. Alfonso XIII. Born a few months after the death of his father, Alfonso XII.

1886-1902. The queen-mother, Maria Christina, an Austrian Archduchess, Regent. Comparatively uneventful years.

1906. Alfonso married a niece of Edward VII and the monarchy gradually increased in popularity, though there were several Socialist and Republican outbursts.

1898. The Spanish-American War.

The island of CUBA full of disturbances due to the misrule of Spanish governors.

1868-78. A long-drawn-out rebellion forced Spain to grant reforms, which she failed to carry into effect.

1895. A more formidable rebellion began.

1896. General Weyler, "the butcher," massacred thousands of natives and devastated the country. Superseded owing to American protests. Spain promised reforms. The United States battleship, The Maine, in Havana harbour watching events, blew up. Popular opinion in America regarded Spain as responsible. The United States declared Cuba independent and ordered Spain to withdraw her troops. Spain refused.

1898. [April.] The United States Declared War. The war ended by August. Spanish fleets destroyed at Santiago and Manila, the capital of the Philippines.

[August.] Peace preliminaries arranged. THE TREATY OF PARIS signed. Cuba declared independent, and Porto Rico and the Philippines ceded to the United States.

1899. Spain sold the Caroline and Pelew Islands to Germany and her once proud Empire was reduced to the Balearic and Canary Islands, and a few small possessions in Africa.

Morocco governed by a sultan claiming descent from Mohammed. 1851-66. Brigands of the RIFF caused trouble with Spain.

1859. The Spaniards invaded Morocco. The discovery of iron and lead near Melilla followed by the building of a railway line. A local revolt developed into a war, requiring an army of 40,000 men, who suffered heavy casualties owing to the climate. Spain secured an indemnity and the right to hold the conquered territory for seventy-five years. The tribesmen of the interior proved a constant trouble.

1925. Spain still entangled in a costly and unsuccessful war against the Riffs.

CHAPTER XXIII

THE MINOR COUNTRIES OF EUROPE

Portugal. 1815-1914.

THE history of Portugal in the nineteenth century was very similar to that of Spain, disturbances, revolts, bad administration and financial chaos.

The Liberals demanded a popularly elected Parliament, Ministerial Responsibility to Parliament, Freedom of the Press, Liberty of Speech, the Right of Public Meeting, and Trial by Jury.

1816-26. John VI. (Regent from 1799.)

1807. The royal family fled to Brazil. After 1814 John refused to leave Brazil and the government of Portugal was controlled by the English.

1820. The Spanish Revolution fired the discontent in Portugal. The Cortes summoned and a DEMOCRATIC CONSTITUTION published. John, invited to return to Portugal, left his son Pedro in Brazil.

1822. BRAZIL declared her INDEPENDENCE, which Portugal acknowledged (1825).

The Constitution of 1822.

- (i) All class privileges abolished.
- (ii) Liberty of the Press granted.
- (iii) Single Chamber Government.
- (iv) The Crown granted a suspensive veto only.

1826. Pedro granted A NEW CONSTITUTION, altered by additional acts in 1852 and 1878.

(i) The Cortes to form the Legislative Body, and to consist of the House of Peers (1864: hereditary peerages abolished; all peers to be nominated by the Sovereign), and the House of Deputies, elected by voters possessing a low property qualification.

(ii) The Cortes elected for four years.

(iii) The Chamber of Deputies to possess the right of initiation of all money bills.

(iv) The Sovereign to possess no power of veto on measures

passed twice by both Chambers.

1826-53. Maria, Queen of Portugal, the daughter of Pedro, who renounced his claims in her favour. Pedro's younger brother DOM MIGUEL claimed the crown. English troops supported Maria. Miguel accepted the Constitution, was betrothed to Maria, and elected Regent.

1828. The English troops withdrawn. Miguel claimed the

crown.

1828-34. The Miguelite Wars. Maria fled to Brazil and returned with her father, receiving support from England and France.

1834. Miguel driven into exile.

1846. A final effort of his supporters crushed.

1853-61. Pedro V, followed by his brother Luiz (1861-89), whose reign was uneventful. The country ill-governed and education neglected. Portugal was one of the worst educated countries in Europe. The State prisons filled with enemies of the monarchy.

1889-1908. Carlos. Ruled arbitrarily and was personally extravagant. The triumph of the reactionaries and financial chaos created a republican movement about 1900.

1907. Carlos disbanded the Cortes.

1908. Carlos Assassinated with his eldest son.

Manuel II, his second son, eighteen years of age, proclaimed King.

1910. [October.] Manuel Deposed.

Proclamation of a Republic. The monks and nuns were expelled and their property confiscated.

1911. The Republican Constitution. Two Chambers, one elected by the municipalities and one by universal manhood suffrage. The Chambers to elect a President every four years. Ministers to be responsible to the Chambers. Since 1910 the Republic has gradually strengthened its hold on the country, and the few attempts the royalists have made to secure the restoration of Manuel have been easily defeated.

Holland and Belgium. 1815-1914.

Belgian grievances after 1815. The Dutch monopolised most of the offices and conducted the Government in their own interests.

The army officered by only 288 Belgians, out of a total number of nearly 2,000 officers. Belgian manufacturers heavily taxed in comparison with Dutch shippers and farmers. The Constitution favoured the Dutch as the Ministers were responsible to the King and not to the Parliament, and only the richest men had a vote. Belgium with twice the population had only equal representation in Parliament. Dutch was the official language of all public offices, law courts, and schools. William appointed Protestant inspectors in Catholic schools in Belgium, and insisted that all candidates for the priesthood should attend Louvain College of Philosophy. Belgium paid the interest on the National Debt equally with Holland, though the Dutch National Debt was much greater than the Belgian.

1830. Riots in Brussels on the receipt of the news of the Paris Revolution. William sent Dutch troops to occupy Brussels, and the riots developed into a revolution. The Belgians set up a Provisional Government, which declared "that the province of Belgium, detached from Holland by force, shall constitute an independent State." A Liberal Constitution drawn up and the Dutch troops driven into Antwerp.

Belgian Independence recognised at a conference in London. LEOPOLD OF COBURG, the widower of Princess Charlotte, daughter of George IV of England, chosen King.

1831. [July.] Coronation of Leopold.

[August.] Married a daughter of Louis Philippe. William refused either to recognise Belgian independence or to evacuate Antwerp.

1832. The Treaty of London ratified (signed in 1831). ENGLAND, FRANCE, PRUSSIA, AUSTRIA, and RUSSIA recognised the new King of the Belgians and guaranteed the independence of Belgium. An English and French naval blockade of Antwerp and the bombardment of the city by a French army forced William to yield, though he refused to recognise the independence of Belgium till 1839.

1839. A SECOND TREATY OF LONDON. The European Powers guaranteed the perpetual neutrality of Belgium. This treaty confirmed by France and Germany in 1870, and in 1914 became world famous as "THE SCRAP OF PAPER."

Holland after 1830.

The history of Holland after 1830 proved quiet and uneventful. 1840. WILLIAM I abdicated in favour of his son, WILLIAM II. 1848. Revision of the Constitution. The property qualifica-

tion for voters lowered. Ministers made responsible to the Estates. Liberty of the Press and Freedom of Public Worship conceded. The Upper Chamber became elective, the deputies being chosen every nine years by the provincial councils.

1849. Accession of WILLIAM III. A war in SUMATRA and an embittered struggle about religious education in the primary schools

disturbed the otherwise peaceful reign.

1890. Accession of Wilhelmina, daughter of William III. Peaceful years of steady commercial development. Holland still possesses valuable colonies in the East Indies.

Belgium after 1830.

1830-65. Leopold I. A period of industrial prosperity. Establishment of State Universities, secondary and primary schools, with religious liberty and the Freedom of the Press pacified the Liberals.

1865-1909. Leopold II. The reign witnessed bitter quarrels about secular education and liberty of conscience. Rise of a Socialist party.

1893. UNIVERSAL MALE SUFFRAGE conceded. Every man over twenty-five years of age received one vote, with one or two additional votes according to his wealth. Political power in the hands of the upper and middle classes, who were strongly Catholic.

1895. OLD AGE PENSIONS established.

AN EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY ACT passed, providing compensation for workers injured during work.

1900. Proportional representation established.

The Belgian Congo. 1879. Stanley in Leopold's pay explored the Upper Congo.

1885. Leopold recognised by the Powers as King of the Congo Free State. The rubber industry scandals drew the attention of Europe to the Congo.

1889. Leopold bequeathed the Congo Free State to Belgium.

1908. The State formally annexed.

1909-Present day. Albert I.

Switzerland.

Switzerland, the most democratic country in the world, consists of twenty-two Cantons. The Congress of Vienna guaranteed the perpetual neutrality of the country.

1815. The Federal Pact fixed the Constitution of the Helve-

TIAN CONFEDERATION. A Diet of delegates from the Cantons. Like the Diet of the Germanic Confederation it was "a Congress of Ambassadors" and had no control over legislation and the executive. The Internal Government left to the Cantons individually. Political power lay in the hands of the wealthy classes, and the Liberals agitated for reforms.

1847. The Catholic Cantons formed the LEAGUE OF THE SONDERBUND and waged a civil war of three weeks against the Protestant Cantons.

1848. The New Constitution.

- (i) A Federal Senate, composed of two representatives from every Canton, elected by universal suffrage, to control the army and foreign affairs.
- (ii) A Federal Council of Seven, elected by the Senate to form the executive.
- (iii) One of the Council of Seven to be the President of the Confederation.
- (iv) A vote of the whole body of citizens required to alter the Constitution.
- (v) The individual Cantons to be republics with universal adult male suffrage.
- (vi) In the smaller Cantons all the adult males vote on every measure.
- (vii) If fifty thousand voters agree in desiring any measure, they may submit it to a vote of the whole body of voters, and if passed it becomes law, even though the Federal Parliament may disagree with it. "The right of initiative."
- (viii) If thirty thousand voters desire the revision or rejection of any measure passed by the Federal Parliament they may submit it to the whole body of voters for final decision. "THE REFERENCEM."

Switzerland first adopted the system of "PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION." This gives a better representation to minorities than any other system in use in the world.

Under the GUARANTEE OF NEUTRALITY, Switzerland has been the home of many arbitration courts, and Geneva conferences. The headquarters of the LEAGUE OF NATIONS is at Geneva.

The Swiss flag with the colours reversed is the symbol of the RED CROSS SOCIETY.

Denmark. 1815-1914.

During the nineteenth century Denmark has been slowly recovering from the loss of Norway, and the burden of debt incurred during the Napoleonic wars. The war with Prussia and Austria over the Schleswig-Holstein question in 1864 (see page 72) the only event of European interest.

1808-39, FREDERICK VI, 1839-46, CHRISTIAN VIII, and 1846-63, FREDERICK VII preserved peace. Denmark made steady progress.

1863. Christian IX's daughter, ALEXANDRA, married EDWARD, Prince of Wales.

1863-1906. CHRISTIAN IX. The development of dairy-farming increased the prosperity of the country. Much waste land reclaimed.

1895. Denmark lost her importance as the controller of the entrance to the Baltic on the opening of the KIEL CANAL.

1866. The present Constitution established an hereditary monarchy, an Upper House, elected mainly by the wealthy landowners, a Lower House elected by all males over thirty years of age. A Ministry responsible to the Lower House formed the executive.

1891. OLD AGE PENSIONS for all over sixty years of age.

COMPULSORY AND FREE EDUCATION established.

1906-12. FREDERICK VIII, the brother of Queen Alexandra, succeeded by his son, CHRISTIAN X, the present King.

Denmark holds Iceland, which since 1874 has enjoyed Home Rule, and several small islands.

Norway and Sweden. 1815-1914.

1815. Norway and Sweden united (see page 35).

1818. BERNADOTTE succeeded Charles XIII with title of CHARLES XIV. The two countries had a common Minister for foreign affairs, but each kept its own separate Government.

1905. After an agitation of some years the Norwegian Parliament, the Storthing, declared the union dissolved, and by 368,211 votes against 184 the Norwegians approved. PRINCE FREDERICK of Denmark chosen King. He rules to-day as Haakon vii, and is married to a daughter of Edward VII of England. All quarrels between Norway and Sweden to be settled by arbitration, and a neutral zone devoid of fortifications to be marked along the frontier.

1907. Norway adopted universal adult suffrage, with votes for women.

1909. Universal manhood suffrage adopted by Sweden.

CHAPTER XXIV

THE GREAT WAR (AUGUST 4, 1914—NOVEMBER 11, 1918)

The Preliminaries.

AFTER the Franco-German war (1870-71) every European country except England introduced conscription. The English fleet maintained on "The Two Power Standard." During the forty-years peace all countries spent increasingly large sums on armaments, armies, and fleets.

- 1900-14. Europe was spending £1,000,000,000 every four years on armies and navies. "THE ARMED PEACE." Birth of a movement to secure reductions by agreement.
- 1898. "Peace Rescript" of Nicholas II, calling for a conference "to seek by means of international discussion the most effectual means of ensuring to all peoples the benefits of a real and enduring peace, and above all of putting an end to the progressive development of the present armaments."
- 1899. The First Hague Conference. Established a Permanent Court of Arbitration to which nearly every European State promised to submit any question, "which affected neither its independence nor its honour." A resolution passed deploring the constant increase in armaments, but nothing done to remedy the evil.
- 1907. The Second Hague Peace Conference. Defined the rules of civilised warfare with regard to the laying of mines, the bombardment of towns, the treatment of prisoners of war, and the rights of neutrals. The question of the reduction of armaments again discussed without result.

The creation of the TRIPLE ENTENTE alarmed Germany. Russia's championship of the Slav States in the Balkan Peninsula and the birth of PAN-SLAVISM answered by the birth of PAN-GERMANISM and a closer friendship between Germany and Austria.

- 1905. The Anglo-Japanese Alliance (renewed in 1911) threatened Germany's policy in the Far East.
 - 1905. "A War Scare" over the Morocco incident averted

by the CONFERENCE AT ALGECIRAS and the resignation of DELCASSÉ, the French Foreign Minister. Germany had taken offence at the Anglo-French agreement about Morocco, and at the conference France agreed to recognise the independence of Morocco, though given police powers along the coast.

1911. Another "War Scare" over the AGADIR INCIDENT. The German gun-boat, the Panther, sent to Agadir on the coast of Morocco as a protest against a French expedition to Fez and the

Spanish occupation of towns in Morocco.

1913. Austria's policy in the Balkan Peninsula threatened by the success of Serbia in the two Balkan wars of 1912 and 1913 (see Chapter XXI). Germany annoyed at the English and French opposition to her projected railway to Bagdad.

[July.] GERMANY increased her active forces from five million to five and a half million men and voted largely increased supplies

for military purposes.

FRANCE replied by increasing the period of active service for her army from two to three years.

RUSSIA voted large supplies for the reorganisation of her army, with the assistance of French officers.

AUSTRIA spent lavishly in improving her artillery.

ENGLAND voted largely increased naval estimates.

BELGIUM introduced conscription.

- 1914. [June 24.] The Kiel Canal opened by the German Emperor, after being made accessible to the largest warships. GERMANY READY FOR WAR.
- [June 28.] Assassination of the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, the heir to the Austrian throne, and his wife in the streets of SERAJEVO, the capital of Bosnia. Austria accused Serbia of complicity in the crime.

[July 23.] Austrian Ultimatum to Serbia. Forty-eight hours given for a favourable reply.

- (i) The trial of the conspirators by Austrian officials in Serbian Courts.
- (ii) The dismissal from the Serbian army and Civil Service of anyone obnoxious to Austria.
- (iii) A full apology for and explanation of anti-Austrian utterances.
- (iv) The publication on the front page of the Official Journal of a prescribed statement of her alleged errors.

"No independent nation had ever been called upon to accept a greater humiliation."

Serbia offered to submit to a decision of the Hague Tribunal, but Austria refused.

[July 24.] Russia announced her intention of supporting Serbia, if attacked by Austria.

[July 25.] Serbia accepted nearly all Austria's demands with certain reservations.

[July 28.] Austria Declared War on Serbia. [July 29.] Russia mobilised part of her forces, and the Austrians bombarded Belgrade.

[July 31.] Germany gave Russia twelve hours to countermand her mobilisation order.

The British Government asked France and Germany to guarantee the neutrality of Belgium, and Belgium to uphold it. (France agreed the same day, Belgium the next day, Germany did not reply.)

[August 1.] Germany Declared War on Russia. Ordered a general mobilisation, and gave France eighteen hours to declare her intentions. The French army mobilised.

[August 2.] Early in the morning German troops occupied the neutral State of LUXEMBURG. England announced her refusal to allow the German fleet to attack the French coast. Germany gave Belgium twelve hours to decide whether she would allow the passage of German troops through Belgium.

[August 3.] Germany Declared War on France.

[August 4.] England gave Germany twelve hours to reply to the demand for a guarantee to respect the neutrality of Belgium. The German Chancellor protested to the English Ambassador at Berlin against the idea of going to war "FOR A SCRAP OF PAPER," as he characterised the treaty of 1839.

England Declared War on Germany.

Japan declared war against Germany. GERMANY supported by AUSTRIA throughout, but ITALY declared her neutrality on the ground that Germany and Austria were fighting an offensive war.

[November.] Turkey joined Germany and Austria.

1915. [May.] Italy joined against Germany and Austria. [October.] Bulgaria joined Germany, Austria, and Turkey.

1916. [March] PORTUGAL; [August] ROUMANIA; and [November] GREECE joined "the Allies."

1917. [May.] The United States of America joined against Germany, followed by CHINA, BRAZIL, MONTENEGRO, SAN MARINO,

PANAMA, CUBA, SIAM, LIBERIA, GUATEMALA, NICARAGUA, HAITI and HONDURAS.

By the end of 1917 nearly seven-eights of the population of the world nominally at war. The Allies possessed over twenty-seven million men under arms, and the Central Powers over ten millions. In Europe only Spain, Holland, Switzerland, Norway, Denmark, and Sweden were neutral.

The Events of the War.

1914.

The heroic resistance of the Belgians at LIEGE delayed the German advance for ten vital days.

[August 20.] BRUSSELS occupied. Retreat of the small British army from MONS and rapid German advance on PARIS.

[September 1.] The Germans were within twenty-five miles of Paris. The French Government withdrawn to Bordeaux.

The Battle of the Marne. Defeat of the Germans under VON KLUCK and retreat to THE SOISSONS-RHEIMS line.

The Germans captured ANTWERP and constructed a submarine base at ZEEBRUGGE.

The South German army checked at VERDUN. The war settled into trench fighting across "THE NO MAN'S LAND." Little change in the positions taken up at the end of 1914 till near the end of the war.

The German Main Fleet shut up in harbours and the warships at sea when war broke out captured or destroyed, with the exception of the GÖEBEN and BRESLAU, which escaped to the Turks through the Dardanelles.

[August.] Three light cruisers and a destroyer sunk off the HELIGOLAND BIGHT. The EMDEN enjoyed a brief fame till destroyed by the Australian warship, the SIDNEY. The only German success was the sinking, by von Spee, off the coast of Chile, of two English cruisers under CRADDOCK by five German cruisers, four of which were sunk by STURDEE in the FALKLAND ISLES BATTLE a few weeks after and the fifth destroyed later. The German merchant flag driven off the seas.

Germany speedily lost all her colonies and over-seas possessions.

The Japanese captured Kiau Chau and the German possessions in the north Pacific.

The Australians and New Zealanders captured those in the South Pacific.

The English and Dutch troops of the Union of South Africa conquered GERMAN SOUTH-WEST AFRICA.

GERMAN EAST AFRICA, THE GERMAN CAMEROONS, and TOGOLAND were overrun by the English and French.

By the end of the year SUBMARINES alone represented Germany on the seas.

1915.

"The Russian Steam-roller."—The Russians advanced into East Prussia and threatened Austria and Silesia. HINDENBURG placed in command, with LUDENDORF as Chief of the Staff. The Hindenburg-Ludendorf combination completely successful. Crushing German and Austrian victories.

Hindenburg overwhelmed the Russians in two engagements at the Tannenberg marshes, with losses of over a million men.

[August.] The Germans captured WARSAW, and occupied COURLAND, LIVONIA, and ESTHONIA [September].

[October.] Bulgaria joined the Central Powers and helped to crush Serbia.

The English expedition to SALONIKA a failure, and Greece overthrew Venizelos in favour of King Constantine, who preserved GREECE'S NEUTRALITY.

The English Dardanelles Expedition marked by the Gallipoli disaster and the withdrawal after losing 100,000 men.

Egypt declared independent of Turkey, and the Suez Canal successfully defended against the Turks.

[October.] Battle of Arras. The English drove the German line back two or three miles along a front of twenty miles after terrific fighting.

[February.] The Submarine Warfare increased in intensity. The Germans began the sinking of neutral ships.

[May 7.] The Sinking of the Lusitania off the south coast of Ireland with the loss of over one thousand men, women, and children. An American court declared the sinking "AN ACT OF PIRACY."

Mesopotamia Expeditionary Force. Under Townshend.

1916.

[February to July.] German attacks on Verdun. Terrible losses on both sides. The failure of the Germans marked a turning point in the war.

[May.] England adopted compulsory military service, following the surrender of Townshend to the Turks at KUT and the failure of the advance to BAGDAD.

[July to November.] Battle of the Somme. Terrific fighting with losses of between six and seven hundred thousand men on each side.

[August.] Roumania joined the Allies. Defeated by the Germans, who occupied BUCHAREST [December].

[May 31.] Naval Battle of Jutland. The German High Sea fleet driven back into harbour after its one appearance in the North Sea during the whole period of the War.

[June.] KITCHENER drowned on his way to Russia.

[November.] Jellicoe superseded by Beatty in command of the English High Sea fleet. The Russians opened a vigorous offensive against the Austrians. After initial successes they were driven back.

1917.

[January 1.] Estimated losses of between five and seven million killed and about ten million wounded or prisoners.

[February 3.] President Wilson broke off diplomatic relations with Germany owing to the German submarine warfare.

[April 6.] The United States Declared War on Germany. "To vindicate the principles of peace and justice in the life of the world, as against selfish and autocratic power . . . to make the world safe for democracy."

[May.] The United States adopted compulsory military service.

During the early months of the year the Germans retired to the famous HINDENBURG LINE and maintained their positions throughout the year.

[March.] RIOTS broke out in ST. PETERSBURG.

[March 15.] Nicholas Abdicated.

[July.] Kerensky chosen dictator. Failed to rally the Russians who were anxious for peace "without annexations and without indemnities,"

[October.] "The Bolsheveki." "Majority Men" of the Russian Socialists. Lenin and Trotsky defeated Kerensky.

[October.] A Vigorous Austrian Offensive drove the Italians across the PIAVE capturing 250,000 prisoners and 1,800 guns, and inflicting 250,000 casualties. The last great victory of the Central Powers.

Mesopotamia. The English captured KUT and BAGDAD.

The Palestine Campaign. Conducted by ALLENBY, equally successful.

[December.] Jerusalem Captured.

1918.

[January 8.] PRESIDENT WILSON published his programme of FOURTEEN POINTS for a world peace, the chief being:—

- (i) No secret treaties or alliances.
- (ii) Freedom of the seas in peace or war.
- (iii) Reduction of armaments.
- (iv) Restoration of Belgium.
- (v) Evacuation of all territories occupied by the Central Powers, Turkey, or Bulgaria during the war.
 - (vi) Alsace and Lorraine to be restored to France.
 - (vii) The formation of a League of Nations.

[March 3.] Treaty of Brest-Litovsk signed by Russia, who lost one-third of her population and nearly all her coal and iron fields. The Ukraine, Finland, Poland, Lithuania, Courland, Livonia, and districts in the Caucasus to be left to form what Governments they pleased. Moscow to be the capital of Russia.

[March 21.] The Germans launched a last great offensive against the English. Checked before reaching AMIENS.

Foch made Commander-in-Chief of all the allied forces on the Western Front. The Germans made desperate attempts to reach CALAIS, and launched fierce attacks on the English line between ARRAS and YPRES. They attacked the French on the line towards Paris and captured Soissons.

[July 15.] Last German Offensive. The Germans made desperate efforts to capture RHEIMS.

[July 18.] Allied Offensive. French and Americans, supported by a British offensive on the Somme.

The German line driven back.

[July to October]. Great allied advance.

[September 29.] Bulgaria retired from the war and compelled to disband her army.

[October 31.] Turkey surrendered unconditionally.

[November 3.] Austria-Hungary surrendered unconditionally. FRANCIS JOSEPH had died 1916, and the new Emperor, CHARLES, in favour of peace as the only means of averting revolution.

[November 8.] German representatives met Foch to receive the Allied terms. A REVOLUTION had commenced in Germany a few days before.

[November 9.] Abdication of the Kaiser, and flight to Holland.
[November 11.] The Armistice Signed. Germany accepted

the terms of the Allies.

(i) Germany given two weeks to evacuate all occupied territory in Belgium, North-East France, Alsace, Lorraine, and Luxemburg.

(ii) All German troops to be withdrawn to the east of the

Rhine.

- (iii) Allied troops to occupy all German territory west of the Rhine.
- (iv) All German troops in territory formerly belonging to Russia, Austria-Hungary, Turkey, and Roumania to withdraw to Germany.

(v) All German warships and submarines to be surrendered.

(vi) All railways and means of communication on the left bank of the Rhine to be placed at the disposal of the Allies.

(vii) Vast stores of war material to be surrendered.

The Conference at Versailles.

1919. [June.] The Treaty of Versailles. Between the Allies and Germany.

[September.] The Treaty of St. Germains. Between the Allies and Austria.

1920. [May.] The Treaty of Sèvres. Between the Allies and Turkey.

Germany, Austria, Hungary, Poland, Greece, Jugo-Slavia (Serbia, Montenegro, and the Old Slav provinces of Austria), Czecho-Slovakia (Bohemia and Moravia), established REPUBLICAN forms of Government.

The War cost fifty thousand million pounds and engaged fifty million armed men. The estimated loss of life totalled ten million.

The National Debt of England had risen from £708,000,000 in 1914 to £7,435,000,000 in 1919, and that of France from twenty-five billion francs to 302 billion francs.

APPENDIX A

Principal Events in Europe and England, 1789 to 1914

	Europe.	England.
1789	Meeting of the States-General (May 5).	
	Capture of the Bastille (July 14).	
	The National Assembly. Accession of Charles IV of	
	Spain.	
	Revolts in Belgium and Hungary against Joseph II's reforms.	
1790	Declaration of the Republic of Belgium.	Burke's "Reflections on the French Revolution" (Nov.)
	Death of Joseph II and accession of Leopold II (Feb. 28).	
	Civil Constitution of the	
	Clergy in France (July).	
	The new French Constitution promulgated.	
1791	Treaty of Pillnitz (Aug. 27).	Pitt maintained neutrality.
	Treaty of Sistova between Austria and Turkey.	
	Death of Mirabeau (April 2).	
	The flight to Varennes	
	(June 20–21). Louis accepted the new Con-	
	stitution.	
	Meeting of the Legislative Assembly (Oct. 1).	
1792	Death of Leopold (March 1).	Warren Hastings acquitted.
	Accession of Francis II of Austria (March).	
	France declared war on	
	Austria (April). France declared war on	·
	Prussia (July).	
	The September Massacres at Paris.	
	The Cannonade of Valmy.	

	Europe.	England.
1793	Second Partition of Poland	
	(Sept.).	
	Execution of Louis XVI (Jan. 21).	
	France declared war on Eng-	
	land and Holland (Feb.),	
	and on Spain (March).	
	Civil War in France.	
	The Committee of Public	
	Safety.	English defeat at Toulon
	The Reign of Terror. Defeat of Girondists.	English defeat at Toulon (Dec.).
1794	French occupy Belgium (June)	Battle of the First of June.
1701	and Holland (Dec.).	Habeas Corpus Act suspended.
1795	Treaty of Bâle.	Spain declared war.
	Final Partition of Poland	Capture of the Cape of Good
	(Oct.).	Hope.
	Establishment of the Di-	
1796	rectory (Nov.). Bonaparte's Italian Cam-	Capture of Ceylon.
1750	paign.	Hoche's Irish Expedition a
	Death of Catherine II of	failure.
	Russia (Nov.).	
1797	Treaty of Leoben (April).	Battle of St. Vincent (Feb. 14).
	Austria made peace.	Mutinies at the Nore and Spit-
	Establishment of the Cisalpine and Ligurian Republics.	head (April and May). Battle of Camperdown
	Accession of Frederick Wil-	(Oct. 11).
	liam III of Prussia (Nov.).	(000.11).
1798	Roman and Helvetian Re-	The Irish Rising and battle of
	_ publics established.	Vinegar Hill (June).
	Bonaparte's expedition to	Battle of the Nile (Abouki
	Egypt. Battle of the Pyra-	Bay) (Aug. 1).
	mids (July 21).	Humbert in Ireland (AugSept.).
1799	The Parthenopian Republic	Pitt formed the Second Coali
	established (Jan. 23).	tion (England, Russia
	Bonaparte's Syrian Cam-	Austria, Turkey, Portugal
	paign (FebMay).	and Naples).
	Joubert defeated and killed	England withdrew her troop
	at Novi by Suvórov (Aug. 15).	from Holland (Oct.).
	Massena's victory over the	
	Russians at Zürich (Sept.	
	26).	
	Bonaparte in France (Oct. 9).	
	Establishment of the Con-	

	Europe.	England.
1799	sulate after the Revolution of the 18th Brumaire (Nov. 9).	
1800	Hov. 9. Bonaparte crossed the Alps— the Austrians captured Genoa, but were decisively defeated at Marengo (June 14). Moreau's victory of Hohen- linden (Dec. 3) Formation of the Armed Neutrality (Russia, Sweden, and Denmark) aimed at England (Dec.).	Act of Union between Great Britain and Ireland (July). Capture of Malta (Sept.).
1801	Treaty of Lunéville (Feb. 9). Accession of Alexander I (March 23). The Concordat signed by Bonaparte and the Pope (July 15). Spain, Russia, and Turkey sign peace with France. Bonaparte elected First Con- sul for life (Aug. 2). France annexed Elba, Pied-	Pitt resigned on the Irish Catholic question (March). Addington, Prime Minister. Nelson dissolved the Armed Neutrality by an attack on Copenhagen. Abercrombie defeated the French in Egypt. Treaty of Amiens (March 25).
1803	mont, Parma, and Piacenza. Act of Mediation recognised Bonaparte as Mediator of Switzerland (Feb.). France compelled Spain to pay monthly subsidies	England declared war on France (May 18). Emmett's rebellion in Ireland (July) Hanover occupied by the
1804	(Oct.). Execution of the Duc d'Enghien (March 21). Bonaparte elected Emperor of the French (May 18), crowned by the Pope (Dec. 2). Spain declared war on England (Dec. 12). Accession of Francis II of	French (June). Pitt resumed office as Prime Minister (April).
1805	Austria (Dec. 7). Napoleon crowned King of Italy. Capitulation at Ulm (Oct. 20). Battle of Austerlitz (Dec. 2). Treaty of Pressburg (Dec. 26).	Pitt's Third Coalition (England, Russia, Austria, and Sweden). Battle of Trafalgar (Oct. 21).

	Europe.	England.
1806	Napoleon made his brother, Joseph, King of Naples (March), and his brother, Louis, King of Holland (June). Napoleon created the Confederation of the Rhine (July). Prussia declared war on France (Oct. 1). Battles of Auerstadt and Jena (Oct. 14). Napoleon issued the Berlin Decree (Nov. 21). Napoleon entered Warsaw (Dec. 15). Francis II renounced the title of Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire and took the title of Emperor of	Capture of Cape Colony (Jan. 8). Death of Pitt (Jan. 23). The Ministry of "All the Talents." Death of Fox (Sept. 13).
1807	Austria. Napoleon formed an alliance with Turkey, which declared war on Russia (Jan.). Battle of Eylau (Feb.). Battle of Friedland (June). Treaty of Tilsit (July). Treaty of Fontainebleau (Oct.), France and Spain to conquer Portugal. Junot captured Lisbon (Nov.). The Milan Decrees issued (Dec.). Napoleon created the Grand	The Orders in Council published. The Slave Trade abolished. Capture of the Danish fleet. Russia declared war (Nov.).
1808	Duchy of Warsaw, Murat occupied Madrid, Abdication of Charles IV of Spain at Bayonne. Joseph Bonaparte made King of Spain (June). Murat made King of Naples. Treaty of Erfurt between Napoleon and Alexander (Oct.). Napoleon captured Madrid	Expedition to Portugal (Aug.). Battle of Vimeiro (Aug. 21). Convention of Cintra.
1809	The Papal States made part	Battle of Corunna (Jan. 16).

	Europe.	England.
1809	of the French Empire (May). Battle of Wagram (July). Treaty of Vienna (Oct.). Metternich made the Austrian Chancellor. Napoleon divorced Josephine (Dec.).	Formation of the Fourth Coalition (April). Failure of the Walcheren Expedition (July-Nov.). Battle of Talavera (July). Guadaloupe, Martinique, and Mauritius captured.
1810	Napoleon married Marie Louise (April), Napoleon annexed the north coast of Germany to the Weser.	The Lines of Torres Vedras constructed. Battle of Busaco (Sept.). George III permanently insane (Nov.).
1811	Birth of Napoleon's son (March). Alexander quarrelled with Napoleon and prepared for war.	The Prince of Wales made Regent. Battles of Fuentes de Onor and Albuera (May.).
1812	Frederick William of Prussia agreed to the passage of French troops. Sweden made a secret treaty with Russia. Napoleon crossed the Niemen (June 24). Battle of Borodino (Sept. 7). French occupation of Moscow (Sept. 14—Oct. 18). French retreat. Napoleon left the army (Dec. 5) for Paris.	Ciudad Rodrigo captured (Jan.), and Badajoz (April). Liverpool became Prime Minister (June). War with the United States of America (June 18). Battle of Salamanca (July 22). Wellington occupied Madrid (Aug. 12). Forced to retreat.
1813	Prussia joined Russia and declared war on France (March). Napoleon's victories at Lützen and Bautzen (May). Signed the armistice of Pleswitz (June 4). Napoleon's interview with Metternich (June 27). Congress at Prague (July). Napoleon refused Austria's terms. Austria declared war against France (Aug. 12). Battle of Dresden (Aug. 26–27). French victory. Battle of Leipzig (Oct. 16–19).	Battle of Vittoria (June 21), Wellington laid siege to Bayonne (Dec.).

	Furono	England.
	Europe.	England.
1813	French retreated across the	
	Rhine. French driven from Holland	
	(Nov.).	
	The Allies invaded France (Dec. 31), after Napoleon's	
	refusal of the Frankfort	
	Proposals.	
1814	The Congress of Châtillon (Feb. 3).	Battle of Toulouse (April 10). Alexander, Frederick William,
	The Allies entered Paris	Blücher, and Metternich
	(March 30).	visited England (June).
	Napoleon abdicated (April 6). Louis XVIII entered Paris	Treaty of Ghent (Dec. 24).
	(May 3).	
	First Treaty of Paris (May 30). The Congress of Vienna	
	opened (Nov. 1).	
1815	The Congress of Vienna.	D. 113 . C. C D LT.
	The Holy Alliance (Aug. 26). "The Hundred Days."	Battle of Quatre Bras (June 16).
	Battle of Ligny (June 16).	Battle of Waterloo (June 18).
	Napoleon abdicated (June 22), surrendered to the English	
	(July 15).	
4040	Second Treaty of Paris.	
1818	Congress of Aix-la-Chapelle (Sept.).	
	Foreign troops withdrawn	
	from France. Beginning of the Prussian	
	Zollverein.	
1819	Assassination of Kotzebue.	Birth of Queen Victoria
	The Carlsbad Decrees.	(May 24). The Peterloo Massacre (Aug.
		16).
1820	Revolutions in Spain (Feb.),	The Six Acts passed (Nov. 29). Death of George III, and
2020	Naples (July), and Portugal	accession of George IV
	(Aug.).	(Jan. 29).
	Assassination of the Duc de Berri (Feb. 13).	The Cato Street Conspiracy (Feb. 23).
	Congresses at Troppau (Oct.),	
1821	and Laibach (Dec.). Congress at Laibach (Jan.).	
2021	Risings in the Danubian	
	Principalities and Greece.	

	Europe.	England.
1821	Murder of the Patriarch of the Greek Church (April 22).	
1822	Death of Napoleon (May 5). Declaration of Greek Independence. Massacre at Chios.	Suicide of Castlereagh (Aug. 12). Canning became Foreign
1823	Congress of Verona (Oct.). France restored Ferdinand VII of Spain. The Monroe Doctrine.	Secretary. Canning recognised the Greek flag and the independence of the revolted Spanish Colonies of South America.
1824	Accession of Charles X of France (Sept. 16).	Death of Lord Byron in Greece (April 19).
1825	Accession of Nicholas I of Russia (Dec. 1).	
1827	Battle of Navarino (Oct. 10).	Canning became Prime Minister (April). Death of Canning (Aug. 8).
1828	Russia declared war on Turkey (April 26).	
1829	Treaty of Adrianople (Sept.).	Catholic Emancipation Bill passed (April).
1830 1831	The Four Ordinances (July 25). The July Revolution in Paris (July 27, 28, 29). Accession of Louis Philippe. Revolution in Belgium (Aug.). Risings in Germany, Poland, and Switzerland. Accession of Ferdinand II of Naples (Nov.). Declaration of Belgian Independence (Nov. 17). Russia defeated the Poles. Mazzini founded the Young Italy Society.	Accession of William IV (June). Lord Grey became Prime Minister (Nov.). Conference at London on the Belgian question.
1832	Abolition of the Polish Constitution. French invasion of Belgium. Otto of Bavaria elected King	The First Parliamentary Reform Bill.
1833	of Greece. The Prussian Zollverein formed. Outbreak of the Carlist Wars in Spain.	Abolition of Slavery in the British Empire (the Bill to come into effect from Aug. 1, 1834).
1835	Accession of Ferdinand I of Austria.	Municipal Corporation Act passed.

	Europe.	England.
1837		Accession of Queen Victoria (June 20). Hanover separated from England.
1839	William I of Holland accepted the Treaty of London, re- cognising Belgian independ- ence.	
1840	England and France end the Carlist Wars in Spain. Accession of William II of Holland (Oct.). Accession of Frederick William IV of Prussia (June). Napoleon I buried at the Hôtel des Invalides (Dec. 15).	Marriage of Queen Victoria to Prince Albert of Saxe- Coburg (Feb. 10). The Canada Act united the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada.
1841	10).	Birth of the Prince of Wales (afterwards Edward VII).
1846 1847	Louis Napoleon escaped from the castle of Ham. The Spanish Marriages. Holstein and Schleswig de- clared part of the kingdom of Denmark. Russia annexed Poland. Cavour published the Liberal newspaper, the Risorgi- mento.	Repeal of the Corn Laws.
1848	The Year of Revolutions. The February Revolution in Paris. Abdication of Louis Philippe (Feb. 24). Proclamation of a Republic in France. Louis Napoleon elected first President (Dec. 10). Liberal and Nationalist risings in Austria, Prussia, Hungary, Bohemia, the German states, Italy, and Poland. Accession of Francis Joseph	Insurrection of Smith O'Brien in Ireland. Chartist riots in London.
1849	of Austria. Battle of Novara. Accession of Victor Emmanuel II of Piedmont. Kossuth driven from Hungary by Russia.	

	Europe.	England.
1849	Mazzini and Garibaldi de- feated at Rome and driven from Italy.	
1850	Convention of Olmütz; Prussia subordinate to Austria.	Death of Peel.
1851	Death of Louis Philippe. Napoleon's "coup d'état" (Dec. 1-2).	The Exhibition at the Crystal Palace.
1852	Cavour became Prime Minister of Piedmont. Napoleon became Emperor of the French (Dec. 2).	Death of the Duke of Wellington (Sept. 14).
1853	Turkey declared war against Russia (Oct.).	
1854		Outbreak of the Crimean War (March). Battles of Alma (Sept. 20), Balaclava (Oct. 25), and Inkermann (Nov. 5). Siege of Sebastopol.
1855	Napoleon III and Queen Victoria exchange state visits. Sardinia joined England and France against Russia. Accession of Alexander II of Russia (March).	Capture of Sebastopol (Sept. 8-9).
1856	Congress of Paris. Treaty of Paris.	
1857 1858	The Orsini Incident (Jan.). Compact of Plombières (July). William became Regent of Prussia (Oct.).	The Indian Mutiny.
1859	Accession of Francis II to the throne of Naples (May). The Italian War. The Austrians invaded Piedmont (April), and France declared war on Austria (May 3). Battles of Magenta (June 4) and Solferino (June 24). Armistice of Villafranca (July 11). Resignation of Cavour (July 13). Modena, Parma, and Tuscany	

	Europe.	England.
1859	declare in favour of union with Piedmont (Aug. and Sept.).	
1860	Cavour Prime Minister of Piedmont (Jan. 16). Sicilian Revolution (April). Garibaldi and the Thousand. Garibaldi conquered Sicily and Naples.	
	Sardinia defeated the Papal Forces, Victor Emmanuel entered Naples (Nov. 2). Garibaldi resigned his Dic- tatorship and withdrew.	
1861	Accession of William I of Prussia (Jan. 1). First Italian Parliament met at Turin (Feb.). Victor Emmanuel, King of Italy. Death of Cavour (June 6). English, French, and Spanish expedition to Mexico (Oct.). Edict of Emancipation of	Death of the Prince Consort (Dec. 14).
1862	Russian serfs. Bismarck became Chancellor	
1863	of Prussia. Russia with Prussian support suppressed the Polish Ris- ing. Accession of Christian IX of Denmark and the beginning of the Schleswig-Holstein affair (Nov.).	Marriage of the Prince of Wales and Alexandra of Denmark (March 10).
1864	Prussia and Austria at war with Denmark (Jan. and Feb.). The Archduke Maximilian proclaimed Emperor of Mexico (April).	
1865	Convention of Gastein (Aug. 14). Napoleon and Bismarck met at Biarritz (Sept.). The United States ordered the withdrawal of French troops from Mexico (Oct.).	Death of Palmerston (Oct. 18)
1866	Italy allied with Prussia (April).	

	Europe.	England.
1867	The Austro-Prussian War. Battle of Königgrätz (July 3). Treaty of Prague (Aug. 23). Secret treaties between Prussia and the South German States. The North German Confederation formed. The Dual Monarchy of Austria and Hungary established. Execution of Maximilian in Mexico (June). French troops defeat Garibaldi	The Second Parliamentary Reform Bill passed (Aug.).
1868	at Mentana (Nov.). Insurrection in Spain. Deposition of Isabella (Sept.).	Gladstone became Prime Minister (Dec.).
1869	Opening of the Suez Canal (Nov.).	,
1870	The Franco-Prussian War. Leopold of Hohenzollern- Sigmaringen and the Span- ish crown. The Ems Telegram (July 13). Battles of Wörth (Aug. 6), Gravelotte (Aug. 18), Sedan (Sept. 1-2). Proclamation of a Republic in France (Sept. 4). Italy seized Rome (Oct.). Sieges of Metz and Paris. Bazaine surrendered at Metz (Oct. 23).	Education Bill (Aug.).
1871	William of Prussia proclaimed German Emperor (Jan. 18). Surrender of Paris (Jan. 30). End of the War (Feb. 26). Treaty of Frankfort (May 10). The revolt of the Paris Commune (March).	
1872	Expulsion of the Jesuits from Germany.	Vote by Ballot established.
1875 1876	Revolt of Herzegovina. Accession of Abdul-Hamid II. A new French Constitution published. The Bulgarian Atrocities.	

	Europe.	England.
1876	The International Association for the Exploration of Africa formed.	
1877	The Russo-Turkish War. Siege of Plevna.	The Queen proclaimed Empress of India (Jan. 1).
1878	Treaty of San Stefano (March). The Berlin Congress (June 13-July 13).	British fleet at the Dardanelles (Jan.).
1879	Death of the Prince Imperial in South Africa.	The Zulu War (JanJune).
1881	Assassination of Alexander II of Russia.	Boer War. Majuba Hill (Feb. 23). Death of Beaconsfield (April 19).
1882	German Colonial Society formed. France annexed Tunis. Formation of the Triple Alli- ance (Germany, Austria, and Italy).	Occupation of Egypt. Battle of Tel-el-Kebir (Sept. 13).
1884	Germany annexed German South-West Africa.	Lower Nigeria annexed.
1885	German East Africa established. The Congo Free State created.	Third Parliamentary Reform Bill. Death of Gordon and loss of the Soudan.
1886	France acquired Madagascar.	British East Africa acquired. Gladstone's First Home Rule Bill.
1887		Jubilee of Queen Victoria's reign (June 21).
1888	Accession of William II of Germany.	County Councils Act (Aug.).
1890 1891	Resignation of Bismarck. France and Russia formed the Dual Alliance.	Death of Parnell (Aug. 6).
1893		Gladstone's Second Home Rule Bill rejected by Lords (Sept.
1894	Chino-Japanese War. Accession of Nicholas II of Russia.	8). Retirement of Gladstone,
1895	Death of Louis Kossuth. Opening of the Kiel Canal.	Jameson Raid (Dec. 31-Jan. 2,
1897	The Armenian Massacres. War between Greece and Turkey.	Diamond Jubilee of Queen Victoria (June 22),

1898 The American-Spanish War. Germany seized Kiau Chau. 1899 Finn liberty destroyed by Russia. 1900 Relief of the Legations at Pekin. Rattle of Omdurman and reconquest of dan. Death of Gladstone (Joutbreak of Boer W 11). Annexation of the Traffic Federation of Aust	Tuly 30). Var (Oct. vansvaal. tralia in 1901.
1899 Finn liberty destroyed by Outbreak of Boer W Russia. 1900 Relief of the Legations at Annexation of the Tra	Var (Oct. ansvaal. tralia in 1901.
1900 Relief of the Legations at Annexation of the Tra	tralia in 1901.
force from Jan. 1, I	
1901 The Trans-Siberian Railway completed to Vladivostok and Port Arthur. Death of Queen (Jan. 22). Accession of Edward	VII.
1902 1904 Russo-Japanese War. Battles of Mukden (Feb.) and Tsus- hima (May 27).	(June 1).
Siege and capture of Port Arthur (surrendered Jan. 1). Treaty of Portsmouth (Aug.).	
"Bloody Sunday" at St. Petersburg. Separation of Norway and Sweden.	
1906 The Algeciras Conference.	nowa*
First Duma in Russia. 1908 Assassination of Carlos I and Death of Campbell	l-Banner-
his eldest son in Lisbon. Abdul-Hamid deposed. Declaration of the Independence of Bulgaria. Abdul-Hamid deposed. Old Age Pensions esta	
Austria annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina.	
1909 Union of South Africa	
1910 Deposition of Manuel II and proclamation of the Portuguese Republic. Boxer Rising in China.	
1911 War between Italy and Turkey. Italy annexed Tripoli (Oct. 1912).	
The Agadir Incident. 1912 The Balkan War.	
The Second Balkan War.	
1913 Treaty of Bucharest (Aug. 10). 1914 Assassination of the Archduke Francis Ferdinand and his wife at Serajevo in Bosnia (June 28).	

	Europe.	England.
1914	Outbreak of the European War. Austria declared war on Serbia (July 28). Germany declared war on Russia (Aug. 1), and on France (Aug. 3).	England declared war on Germany (Aug. 4).

APPENDIX B

The Rulers of the European States

France.

Louis XVI		1774-92.
The First Republic .		1792–1804.
(a) The Convention		1792–5.
(b) The Directory		1795–9.
(c) The Consulate		
Napoleon I, Emperor		1804-14, and 1815, March-June.
Louis XVIII		1814–24.
Charles X		1824–30.
Louis Philippe .		1830–48.
The Second Republic		1848–52.
Napoleon III, Emperor		185270.
The Third Republic		1870-Present Day.

Prussia.

Frederick William II		1786–97.
Frederick William III		1797–1840.
Frederick William IV		1840-61.
William I (Regent 1858)		1861-88.
German Emperor		
Frederick		1888.
William II		1888-1918.
		1918-Present Day.

Austria.

Joseph II						1765–90.
Leopold II						1790–2.
Francis II						1792–1835.
Took the	title o	of En	peror	of Au	stria	1806.
Ferdinand I						1835–48.
Francis Jose	ph					1848–1917.
						1917–1918.
Republic						1918-Present Day.
T T					145	

Russia.

Paul				1796-1801.
Alexander I .				1801–25.
Nicholas I .				1825–55.
Alexander II.		•	•	1855–81.
Alexander III	•			1881-94.
Nicholas II .			•	1894–1917.
Republic .				Since 1917.

Italy.

Before 1861 Kings of S.	ardin	ia (and	d Pie	dmont) only.
Victor Amadeus II.				1773–96.
Charles Emmanuel II				1796–1802.
Victor Emmanuel I				1802–1821.
[1805-14 Piedmont w	as ru	led by	Na	poleon.7
				1821–31.
				1831-49.
				1849–78.
(King of Italy afte			- 1	2020 ,01
		,		1878-1900.
Victor Emmanuel III	•			1900-Present Day.
A 10 tot 13 Hillian act 111	•		•	1000 Liosono Day.

Spain.

		_	
Charles IV .			1788–1808.
Joseph Bonaparte			180813.
Ferdinand VII			1813-33.
Isabella II .			1833–68.
Republic .			
Amadeus I .			1870–3.
Republic .			1873–4.
Alfonso XII .			1874–85.
Maria (Regent to	1902)		1885–6.
Alfonso XIII.			1886-Present Day.

Portugal.

Maria I.					1786-1816.
John (Regent	1791-	-1816)			1816–26.
Peter IV					1826.
Maria II					1826–28, restored 1833–53.
(Dom Miguel					1828-33.)
Peter V.					1853-61.
Luiz I .					1861–89.
Carlos I					1889–1908.
Manuel II			. `		1908–1910.
Republic					Since 1910.

Sweden.

Gustavus III				-		1771-92.
Gustavus IV						1792–1809.
Charles XIII						1809–18.
Charles XIV						1818-44.
(Marshal	Berna	adotte	.)			
Oscar I		. "				1844-59.
Charles XV					100	1859–72.
Oscar II						
Cuatorna V						1007 Progent Day

Norway.

Ruled by the King of Denmark	1814.
Ruled by the King of Sweden .	1814-1905.
Haakon VII	1905-Present Day.

Denmark.

Frederick VI (Re	gent 1	784-1	1808)	 1808-39.
Charles VIII .	. (1839-48.
Frederick VII				1848-63.
Christian IX .				1863–1906.
Frederick VIII				1906–12.
Christian X .				1912-Present Day.

Turkey.

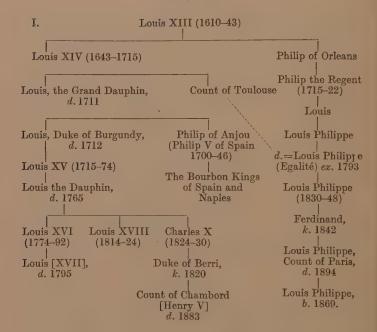
Selim III				1789-1807 (deposed).
Mustapha IV				1807-8 (deposed),
Mahmoud II				1808–39.
Abdul Medjid				1839-61.
Abdul Aziz				1861-76 (deposed).
Amurath V				1876 (deposed).
Abdul Hamid	II			1876-1909 (deposed).
Mohammed V				1909-Present Day.

The Popes.

Pius VI.					1775–99.
Pius VII					1800-23.
					1823-9.
					1829-30.
Gregory XVI					1831-46.
Pius IX					1846-78.
Leo XIII					
Pius X . Benedict XV					1914-22.
					1922Present Day.
2 200 222	•	_	•	•	

APPENDIX C

The Bourbons.



Two daughters, the elder of whom had issue

The Bonapartes.

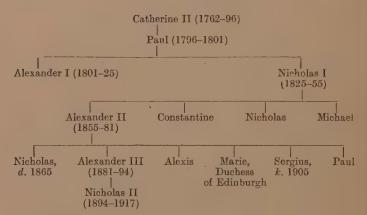
Carlo Maria de Buonapatre — Letizia Ramolino (both natives of Corsica), b. 1746 | b. 1750

II.

Alexandre de	ALLENDIA	
séphine = Napoleon = Marie Louise Lucien Louis Napoleon Jérome Jérome 13–1814) (1759–1840) (1778–1846), (1784–1860), (1784–1860), (1781–1846), (1781–1846), (1784–1860), (1784–1860), (1806–10) King of Rone (1806–10) King of Rone (1806–10) King of Rone (1811–14) Beaularnais Joseph Louis Napoleon, (1811–14) Charles Louis (1808–73) de Montijo (1822–90) Napoleon (1802–7), (1804–31) Napoleon, the adopted as Prince Imperial heir, 1805	Three daughters	Louis, b. 1864
Alexandre de	Jérome Jérome King of King of Nestphalia (1807-14) Joseph Prince Napoleon (1822-90)	Victor Napoleon, b. 1862
Alexandre de	Lucien Louis Napoleon 75–1840), King of Holland (1806–10) = Hortense de Beauharnais	leon III = Eugénie 08-73) de Montijo Napoleon, the Prince Imperial (1856-79)
Alexandre de	on = Marie Louise	
Alexandre de = Jos Bauharnais (1760–94) (1760–94) Eugène de Beanharnais (1781–1824), Vicercy of Italy K (1805–144) Had children Joseph (1768–1844) (King of Naples 1806–8) (King of Spain 1808–13)	cphine = Napol 3-1814) (1769-1 Hortense (1783-1837) (1783-1837) ing of Holland	Napoleon Charles (1802-7), adopted as Napoleon's heir, 1805
	Alexandre de = Jos Beauharnais (176; (1760-94) Eugene de Beauharnais (1781-1824), Vicercy of Italy K (1805-14)	Had children foseph (1768–1844) King of Naples 1806–8) King of Spain 1808–13)







APPENDIX D

THE PARTITIONS OF POLAND

POLAND was a country larger in area than France and peopled by nobles, who were soldiers, and peasants, who were serfs. The Government nominally an elective monarchy, in practice republican. The King, elected by the nobles, presided over the National Assembly, and commanded the army. He had no control over the Senate, which formed the executive power and was controlled by the Diet of four hundred deputies. Every resolution to be unanimous.

1772. The First Partition.

Frederick the Great, "the ogre of Potsdam," proposed to Austria and Russia a treaty of partition, to which the Polish Diet was compelled to submit. Poland lost one-third of her territory and half of her population. "A vast national crime." Prussia gained most, uniting East Prussia to her territory in Germany by the acquisition of West Prussia. Russia forfeited the friendship of the Poles, a Slav race.

1791. The new French Constitution (see page 6) copied by the Polish reformers. The reactionary nobles appealed to Catherine of Russia, who regarded all reforms as Jacobinism. 80,000 Russians and 20,000 Cossacks co-operated with a Prussian army in defeating the reformers under Kosciusco.

1793. The Second Partition.

Catherine II of Russia and Frederick William of Prussia signed the Second Partition Treaty, disregarding Austria, engaged in her war against France, The Polish Diet accepted the treaty in silence, and Russia and Prussia absorbed further slices of Poland. Kosciuseo returned to Poland, but the Poles were defeated by Suyórov.

1795. The Third Partition.

Russia, Prussia, and Austria united in a division of the remainder of Poland, and Poland ceased to exist as a member of the European states-system till after the Great War.

[Poland after 1795, see page 106.]

APPENDIX E

THE EUROPEAN CONGRESSES

I. The Congress of Aix-la-Chapelle. 1818.

ATTENDED by Alexander I of Russia, Francis of Austria, Frederick William of Prussia, Metternich, Lord Castlereagh, the Duke of Wellingston, and representatives of all the European Powers. Its first business to decide on the withdrawal of the army of occupation from France. Two treaties reaffirming the Quadruple Alliance signed and various Anti-Liberal resolutions passed. Long but fruitless discussions on Spain and her South American colonies and the Barbary pirates. England not prepared to adopt the full Anti-Liberal and repressive policy of her Allies.

II. The Congress of Troppau. 1820.

The most active members were Alexander, Francis, Frederick William, and Metternich. England and France sent representatives to watch, but not discuss. The two Western Powers drawing further away from Russia, Austria, and Prussia. The Congress summoned to deal with the revolts in Spain and Naples (see page 113). Alexander proposed to march 15,000 Russians into Spain and to settle the affairs of Naples in a Congress. Metternich opposed both these ideas. The affairs of Naples he claimed as a purely Austrian question, but France supported Russia in the demand for a Congress, which met in October and formulated the Troppau Protocol, extending the Carlsbad Decrees (see page 47) to the whole of Europe, and declaring that "States which have undergone a change of Government owing to revolution, the results of which threaten other States, thereby cease to be members of the European Alliance, and remain excluded from it, until their situation gives guarantees for legal order and stability. . . . If, owing to such alterations, immediate danger threaten other States, the Powers bind themselves by peaceful means, or by arms, if necessary, to restore the guilty State to the bosom of the Great Alliance." This statement of Metternich's Anti-Liberal system aroused the protest of the English representatives and it was decided to continue the Conference at Laibach.

III. The Conference of Laibach. 1821.

Ferdinand of Naples asked to attend, but was compelled to take an oath to uphold the new Constitution before he was allowed to leave Naples. The Congress authorised Austria to suppress the liberalism of South Italy and an Austrian army restored Ferdinand. 1821 [March], a Liberal revolt had broken out in Piedmont. 80,000 Austrians, with 100,000 Russians held in reserve, sent to help the King of Piedmont. The Liberals defeated at Novara. Outbreak of the Greek revolt. The Congress adjourned to Verona.

IV. The Congress at Verona. 1822.

Metternich wished to prevent Russia occupying the Danubian Principalities and was supported by England and France. Canning and Wellington sent to Verona to watch the course of events. Metternich's view that "the Greek revolt was outside the pale of civilisation" prevailed. Spain the main subject of discussion. France authorised to restore Ferdinand (see page 40). Canning opposed a proposal by France and Spain to call a conference at Paris to discuss the question of the Spanish colonies of South America. The declaration of the Monroe Doctrine (see page 113) settled the issue. This was the last of the Congresses. England under Canning's guidance had completely broken away from the Anti-Liberal Powers of Europe and regained her old independence of action.

APPENDIX F

THE EMS TELEGRAM

DATED July 13, 3.50 p.m. (1870) at Ems. Sent by Abeken, Secretary to the Prussian Foreign Office, to Bismarck at Berlin.

His Majesty writes to me: "Count Benedetti spoke to me on the promenade, in order to demand from me, finally, in a very importunate manner, that I should authorise him to telegraph at once that I bound myself for all future time never again to give my consent, if the Hohenzollerns should renew their candidature. I refused at last somewhat sternly, as it is neither right nor possible to undertake engagements of this kind à tout jamais. Naturally I told him that I had as yet received no news, and as he was earlier informed about Paris and Madrid than myself, he could see clearly that my Government once more had no hand in the matter." His Majesty has since received a letter from the Prince. His Majesty, having told Count Benedetti that he was awaiting news from the Prince, has decided with reference to the above demand, upon the representation of Count Eulenburg and myself, not to receive Count Benedetti again, but only to let him be informed through an aide-de-camp: "That his Majesty has now received from the Prince confirmation of the news, which Benedetti had already received from Paris, and had nothing further to say to the ambassador." His Majesty leaves it to your Excellency whether Benedetti's fresh demand and its rejection should not be at once communicated both to our ambassadors and to the Press.

Bismarck "edited" the telegram, which was published in the German and copied in the French newspapers, in the following abbreviated form:—

"After the news of the renunciation of the hereditary Prince of Hohenzollern had been officially communicated to the Imperial Government of France by the Royal Government of Spain, the French ambassador at Ems further demanded of his Majesty, the King, that he would authorise him to telegraph to Paris, that his Majesty, the King, bound himself for all future time never again to give his consent, if the Hohenzollerns should renew their candidature. His Majesty, the King, thereupon decided not to receive the French ambassador again, and sent to tell him through the aide-de-camp on duty that his Majesty had nothing further to communicate to the ambassador."

APPENDIX G

SUBJECTS FOR ESSAYS

Chapter I.

I What is meant by the "principles of the French Revolution"?

How far were they established in France?

- 2. "It was the National Debt that was the germ of our liberties" (Mirabeau). Examine the state of the Royal Finances on the eve of the French Revolution, and its influence on the Revolutionary Move-
- 3. Why did the Middle Classes in France support the Revolution in 1789?
- 4. Outline the progress of the French Revolution from the meeting of the States General to the execution of Louis XVI.

5. How did (a) Necker, (b) Mirabeau attempt to preserve the

monarchy in France?

6. Describe the part played in the French Revolution by (a)

Mirabeau, (b) Robespierre.

7. Who was the greatest man (other than Napoleon) who appeared in France during the French Revolution? Give reasons for your answer.

8. "The causes of the French Revolution were mainly political."

Discuss this statement.

9. Give some account of the work of the Convention. Why did it fail to effect a lasting settlement?

Chapters II and III.

1. On what occasions did Austria go to war with France between 1789 and 1802? What were the results?

2. Who were the Jacobins? Account for their rise and give some account of the part they played in the history of Europe.

3. Account for the rise of Napoleon to 1802.

4. Was Napoleon I the friend or foe of the national principle?

5. Describe the domestic re-organisation of France by Napoleon I and show its importance.

6. How far was Napoleon's downfall due to his own mistakes?

7. "The French Revolution liberated the new forces of nationality and democracy, of which Napoleon became successively the instrument, the master, and the victim." Show by a brief summary of Napoleon's career how far this statement can be accepted or needs to be corrected.

8. What was the share of German statesmen and of the German

people in bringing about the downfall of Napoleon?

9. Account for the French failure in the Peninsular War.

10. Did any European countries derive benefits, directly or indirectly, from Napoleon's invasions?

11. Point out the different factors making for Napoleon's success

either (a) as a soldier or (b) as an administrator.

12. "Napoleon I did more good to Europe by his reforms than he

did harm to her by his wars." Discuss this statement.

13. Why was it important to Napoleon to have a good understanding with Russia?

Chapter IV.

1. Why did the European settlement of 1815 excite dissatisfaction?

2. What is your estimate of Alexander I of Russia?

3. Describe and criticise the main features of the settlement of Europe

devised by the Congress of Vienna.

- 4. Explain and illustrate the predominance of Russian influence at the Congress of Vienna, and estimate the permanent value to Europe of Alexander I's ideas.
- 5. Draw maps of Europe showing the chief political divisions before and after the Congress of Vienna, and briefly indicate the changes that took place during the remainder of the nineteenth century.

6. "The theory of the Balance of Power had never been allowed to slip far into the background by the diplomats at Vienna." Discuss

and illustrate this statement.

7. "The principle at the back of the heads of the diplomats at Vienna was the time-honoured principle of dividing among the conquerors the spoils of victory." Criticise this statement.

8. "The Vienna settlement was an honest attempt to prevent future wars and the best that could have been devised in 1815," Discuss this statement.

Chapter V.

1. Account for the French enthusiasm for Napoleon in March 1815.

2. Compare the two treaties of Paris (1814 and 1815) and account for the differences.

3. Give a clear account of the Waterloo campaign and some estimate of the generalship of Napoleon and Wellington.

4. Can you justify the treatment of Napoleon after his surrender to the English?

Chapter VI.

1. "The Émigrés had learnt nothing and had forgotten nothing." What should they have learnt, and what should they have forgotten, if they were to reconcile France to the Bourbon restoration?

2. "Louis XVIII returned to Paris in 1815 in the baggage of the Allies." Explain and discuss this statement.

3. What do you understand by a "reactionary policy"? Give some account of the reaction in France between 1815 and 1848.

- 4. What differences can you discover between the rebellions in France in 1830 and 1848?
- 5. Why was a republic established in France in 1848 and not in 1830?

6. Why was Louis Philippe called "the bourgeois King"?
7. Trace the origin and progress of the Revolutionary Movement of 1830.

8. Sketch the policy of Louis Philippe, and explain his downfall.

9. What were the social and political causes of the Revolution in France in 1848, and why did the Second Republic fall?

Chapter VII.

1. Give some account of German Liberalism between 1815 and

2. Give a clear account of the efforts to secure German unity in 1848-49. Why were they a failure?

3. Draw a map showing the growth of the Prussian Zollverein, and

discuss its importance.

4. What is meant by the "Metternich system"? Trace the stages of its breakdown.

5. Illustrate the working of the forces favourable and unfavourable to German unification between 1815 and 1849.

Chapter VIII.

1. Draw a map illustrating the different races under the rule of the Hapsburgs in 1815.

2. Discuss the part played by Metternich in European history between

1815 and 1848.

3. Give some account of Hungary in the years 1815-48.

4. What were the demands of the Liberals in Vienna in 1848? Account for the triumph of the Reactionaries.

5. What light do the events of 1848 throw upon the weakness of

the Hapsburg monarchy?

6. What were the aims of the Revolutionary Movements of 1848 in Austria-Hungary?

Chapter IX.

1. What did Metternich mean when he described Italy as "a geographical expression"? Draw a map to illustrate your answer.

2. "Mazzini was the prophet of a United Italy." Explain and

discuss this statement.

3. What did Cavour mean when he said that Italy had found a national flag in 1849?

4. Examine the forces that (a) so long delayed the attainment of Italian unity; (b) made Sardinia the leader of the movement.

5. Give a full account of the events in Italy in the years 1848-49, and

account for the failure of the Italians.

Chapter X.

1. What do you understand by the Eastern Question in 1815 to 1830? Discuss the strategic and commercial importance of Constantinople.

Discuss the strategic and commercial importance of Constantinople.

2. "A war of barbarians against barbarians." Discuss this state-

ment with reference to the Greek War of Independence.

3. Who was Mehemet Ali? What part did he play in the Greek

War of Independence?

4. Consider the motives of and the part played by Russia during the course of the Greek War of Independence.

5. Trace the course of the Greek struggle for independence down to

the establishment of the Kingdom.

6. Why did the Greeks achieve independence more rapidly than the other Balkan peoples?

Chapter XI.

1. Write a brief life of Napoleon III to his election as Emperor.

2. Discuss the causes of the Crimean War.

3. Consider the merits and defects of the Treaty of Paris (1856).

4. Explain the attitude of the various European Powers towards the Eastern Question at the time of the Crimean War.

5. "The Crimean War was an unqualified disaster to all concerned in it save Italy." Discuss this statement.

Chapter XII.

- 1. "Cavour is the architect of Italian unity." Consider this statement.
- 2. Give an account of the Expedition of the Thousand, with a map showing Garibaldi's march from Marsala to Capua.
- 3. Discuss the motives of Napoleon in agreeing to (a) the compact of Plombières, (b) the armistice of Villafranca.
 - 4. Who did most for Italian unity—Cavour, Garibaldi, or Mazzini?
- 5. Narrate the course of the struggle for Italian unity after 1850.6. What were the chief circumstances that contributed to or hindered
- 6. What were the chief circumstances that contributed to or hindered the cause of Italian unification?
 - 7. How did Cavour win the sympathy and support of Napoleon III in his struggle against Austria, and what use did he make of Napoleon's help?

8. Show how Italy achieved unity and independence after the battle

of Magenta.

9. Estimate and illustrate the merits of Garibaldi as a military leader.

Chapter XIII.

1. Explain clearly the Schleswig-Holstein Question, with map.

2. Examine the real causes of the rivalry between Prussia and Austria.

3. In what ways was Germany united by 1867?

4. In what ways is the genius of Bismarck as a Foreign Minister illustrated up to the end of 1867?

5. Discuss the significance of the Treaty of Prague (1866).

6. How was the overthrow of Austria in 1866 brought about, and what were the political results of Austria's defeat?

7. Draw a map to illustrate the events of the Austro-Prussian War

of 1866, and give a clear account of the course of events.

Chapter XIV.

1. In what ways did Napoleon III's prestige suffer owing to his action in Luxemburg, Mexico, and Italy between 1866 and 1870?

2. To what extent had the Empire become unpopular in France by

3. Give a clear account of the part played by the candidature of Leopold to the Spanish throne in causing the Franco-German War.

4. Estimate the prospects of France and Germany at the outbreak

of the Franco-German War.

- 5. Give a clear account of the course of the war (a) to the surrender at Sedan, (b) after the surrender. Draw a map to illustrate the movements of the main armies.
 - 6. Discuss the wisdom of the terms imposed by Bismarck on France.
 - 7. To what extent was the Second Empire in France a Liberal Empire? 8. Could the German Empire have been established without a previous
- victorious contest with France?
- 9. Is it true to say that the Ems telegram was the cause of the Franco-German War?
- 10. Sketch the character of Napoleon III. What good did he do and what mistakes did he make?
- 11. Apportion the responsibility for the Franco-German War between Bismarck and Napoleon III.

12. Trace the steps by which Bismarck succeeded in winning for

Prussia the headship of Germany.

13. Trace the foreign policy of Napoleon III and show how it finally

led to his downfall.

14. "Napoléon le petit." How far is Victor Hugo justified in applying this title to Napoleon III?

Chapter XV.

1. Draw maps showing (a) the extent of Turkish rule in 1683, (b) the political boundaries of the Balkan states as arranged in 1878, (c) the racial distribution of the Balkan peoples.

2. Give a clear account of the causes and events of the Russo-Turkish

War of 1877-8.

3. Compare the treaties of San Stefano and Berlin. Why was the treaty of San Stefano unsatisfactory to the Powers of Europe?

4. What were the principal difficulties in the way of a settlement

of the Balkan Question in 1878?

5. Trace the origin of the kingdoms of Roumania and Bulgaria.

6. What do you know of the history of Serbia between 1815 and 1878?

7. "The sick man of Europe." To what extent do you consider that the problem of the Near East was due to the moribund condition of the Turkish Empire in the years 1820-78?

Chapter XVI.

1. Give a clear account of the French Constitution at the present day.

2. How did France escape from the political isolation imposed upon her after 1871 by Bismarck?

3. Give some account of the difficulties the Third Republic had to

face between 1871 and 1914.

4. Account for the recovery of France after the war of 1870-1.

5. What matters of disagreement with France and Russia had to be removed before England could enter into a cordial understanding with these Powers? What were the causes of the "entente cordiale"?

6. When and from what directions has the continued existence of

the Third Republic in France been menaced?

7. Give some account of the part played in Africa by France between 1871 and 1914. Draw a map showing the French possessions and spheres of influence in Africa at the present day.

Chapter XVII.

1. Give some account of the domestic history of the German Empire between 1871 and 1914.

2. What part did Germany play in the history of Europe between

1871 and 1914?

3. Give some account of Germany's efforts between 1871 and 1914 to secure "a place in the sun."

4. Discuss the importance of the accession of William II.

5. Give an account of Bismarck's actions in securing the formation of the Triple Alliance.

6. How far was Bismarck's policy continued by the German Government after his fall?

7. Discuss the work and methods of Bismarck as a diplomatist.

Chapter XVIII.

1. What part did Austria play in the general history of Europe between 1867 and 1914?

2. "The only great State not based on the principle of nationality." Was this statement true of Austria between 1867 and 1914?

■ 3. Describe the Austro-Hungarian settlement of 1867. How far was this a satisfactory solution of the problem?

4. Give some account of Austria's policy and aims in the Balkan Peninsula to 1914, showing clearly in what way Serbia incurred her enmity.

Chapter XIX.

1. Give some indication of the domestic problems of Italy between 1870 and 1914.

2. In what ways has Italy attempted to acquire territory since 1871?

3. Why did Italy join the Triple Alliance? Why was she unable to form a real friendship with Austria?

Chapter XX.

1. Account for the prestige enjoyed by Russia, and her real weakness during the nineteenth century.

2. Give some account of the reforms of Alexander II. Why did they

fail to allay discontent?

3. Give some account of the reactionary policy adopted by Alexander III.

4. Write a short history of Poland from 1815 to 1863.

5. Account for the traditional hatred of Russia for Turkey during the nineteenth century.

6. Give some account of Russia's aims and activities in the Far East

in the reign of Nicholas II.

- 7. On what occasions and for what reasons did Russia and England come into conflict between 1850 and 1878?
- 8. Sketch the course of relations between Russia and the Western Powers from the Treaty of Vienna (1815) to the end of the Crimean War.

9. What is your estimate of Alexander I of Russia?

10. What were the chief internal reforms carried out in Russia between 1815 and 1914?

11. Trace the reaction of the Russo-Japanese War on (a) Russia,

(b) the other Powers of Europe.

12. To what extent was Nicholas II responsible for the downfall of Czarism in Russia?

Chapter XXI.

1. Give some account of the difficulties Turkey had to face between 879 and 1914.

2. What part did Greece play in European history after 1878?

3. Give a clear account of the causes and results of (a) the First Balkan War (1912), (b) the Second Balkan War (1913).

4. To what extent had the Balkan Settlement of 1878 been varied before 1914?

5. Consider the causes and the results of the rise of the Young Turks.

Chapter XXII.

1. Account for the weakness of Spain during the nineteenth century.
2. Give an account of the territorial losses of Spain during the nineteenth century.

M

3. On what occasions and with what results did Spanish affairs affect European politics between 1815 and 1914?

4. Give some account of the Spanish Constitutions of 1812 and 1876 and account for the continued success of the reactionary forces during the nineteenth century.

Chapter XXIII.

- 1. Write a brief history of Portugal from 1815 to the establishment of the Republic in 1910.
- Why did the Union of Holland and Belgium break down?
 "Switzerland is the most democratic country in the world." Illustrate and discuss this statement.

APPENDIX H

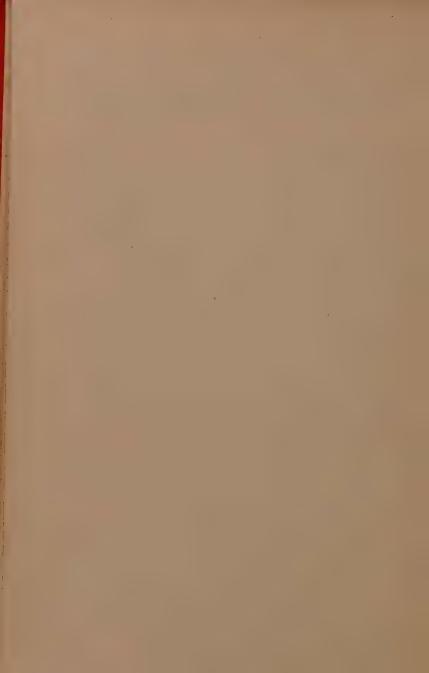
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